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A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE FRAMED CONTENT ANALYSIS INVESTIGATION OF PERSUASIVE SHIFTS IN INTERSTATE ORATORICAL ASSOCIATION FINAL ROUND SPEECHES

A Thesis
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By

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Title

A Historical Perspective Framed Content Analysis Investigation of Persuasive Shifts in Interstate Oratorical Association Final Round Speeches

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ABSTRACT

This thesis explores the historical trends of persuasion as it functions in the competitive forensic setting, looking at the structures used as well as the topics of the speeches. Persuasion plays a large role in our academic and daily lives, which stresses the importance of studying this area due to the large role it plays in our society. This thesis explores the persuasive speeches in the final round of the Interstate Oratorical Association competition from 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000 and 2010 to document the historical trends of persuasive strategies used as a representation of the role forensics fills in our understanding of persuasive trends.

Keywords: IOA, Forensics, Persuasive Speaking, Persuasive Strategies, Rhetorical Criticism

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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this thesis to my parents John and Marijane, my wife Candace, and my coach from my forensic competition days at NDSU, Amorette Hinderaker. These people are the ones who not only kept me focused and driven during this process, but helped me believe that it could be done. I owe you all so much that words can not express how much all you have done, and what you continue to do means to me.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

The use and study of persuasive speaking strategies has existed since the time of Aristotle and Socrates. The role of persuasion has grown and evolved into an integral part of our culture. The ancient Greeks viewed persuasion as one of the most important aspects of citizenship, inviting and enabling the common man to contribute to the democratic process. The importance of persuasion to democracy has not changed since ancient Greece. From persuading citizens to believe in the possibility and success of a new nation, to convincing citizens to support and participate in world wars, to calling for actions on equality for women, African-Americans, and those viewed as second class citizens, to speeches on healthcare and educational reform that are occurring today, persuasion has remained a key part to not only our society's progression, but also, its history.

Because persuasion changes and is changed by public and social spheres, we can assume that changes in political and social structures over time also change what strategies of persuasion become more and less effective and prevalent in use. This thesis investigates the persuasive strategies and structures used in the Interstate Oratorical Association (IOA) final round speeches from 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000 and 2010 through content analysis in order to understand how persuasion in forensic competition has changed in the last fifty years. This leads to the research question for the thesis: How have the speeches in the Interstate Oratorical Association contest changed over the last fifty years? I argue that persuasion in forensics has changed in three major aspects: the structural elements that make up persuasive speeches, the use of rhetorical devices within

speeches, and the citation and use of sources and the role they play in the content of the speech; and as a result we have lost our connection to the historical roots of the activity, and the pedagogy that is the base of forensics.

Reason for Investigation

Studying the "best practices" of speakers can tell us something about persuasion. Strategies that help to effectively engage and audience, create effective ethos, pathos and logos within a speech, strategies that establish speaker credibility and show comprehensive understanding and citation of topic material are all examples of "best practices" within persuasive speaking. It is not just that a speaker needs to do these ideas within a speech, but they need to do them all well. As Parrish (2005) states, "Any sound theory of speechmaking must be derived from observation of the practices of the best speakers" (p. 35). The historical roots of forensics are the basis of the activity today, as many of the rules and ideas about how to run a team, run a tournament, construct speeches, use sources, and choose topics and pieces all come from the elocutionary society roots of forensics. The ideas we use to coach and create speeches and run teams today are derived from the observation of past practices and those ideas that were successful in their time. As scholars we often look to past works and examples to draw ideas for research, methods for teaching, and to build upon ideas and concepts that others have already investigated or taught. For example, as educators, we use persuasive models and strategies in the classroom to help students understand complex material. As citizens, we are exposed to persuasive ads and speeches in our everyday lives, by companies trying to have us consume and use their products. As scholars, we use persuasive

elements when we propose research, trying to convince colleagues that our ideas may be fruitful to the field. These ideas extend to all levels of education and forensic competition, and the roots of these ideas are contained in the foundation of forensics and academics, and are used by both educators and students both inside and outside of the classroom or competition room. It is with these ideas in mind that this thesis is a historical analysis that studies the manner in which persuasive speaking in the IOA contest and in forensics as a whole has changed, to document and articulate trends and changes in persuasive speaking that have occurred in the Interstate Oratory contest over the last fifty years, as this can give insight into how forensics has changed.

Many who participate in forensics at either the high school or college level go on to careers as educators, politicians, public officials, or at least as individuals who play a key role in their community. The way in which they learn, understand, and use persuasion can have a large impact on the community as a whole. Understanding persuasion in forensics activities does not only affect competitive forensics, but also the broader public, social, and commercial spheres. This impact articulates the importance of understanding the disconnect occurring within forensics, and see how our shifting activity has moved away from our historical roots, and as a result, our community has noticed that the route we are on does not reflect the overall goals that are the basis of forensics.

During my time as a competitor and coach for North Dakota State University's forensics team, I have witnessed how norms and practices for what constitutes "good persuasion" can and do change quickly. This has led to a concern that I and many others in the forensic community share that we as a forensic community have created a disconnect between what we teach as effective persuasion within the classroom, and what

we coach our students to do as effective persuasion in competition. I have had conversations with many coaches and competitors about the roots of this activity, and about what the goals of this activity ought to be, and many agree that we have started to shift away from our elocutionary society roots, and have now become more focused on winning, rather than on teaching students to speak and articulate their ideas effectively. Understanding persuasive strategies in forensics, therefore, requires understanding patterns of how such strategies change over time, and the historical roots that still impact the activity as it exists today. To that end, this thesis will analyze how persuasive strategies have changed over the last five decades from a historical viewpoint, meaning that by looking at the history of this event and the changes that have occurred in the content of the final round speeches, insight to shifts in forensic persuasion and in persuasion as a whole can be discerned.

The IOA is the predominant representation of effective persuasive strategies in forensics. The IOA is the oldest and most prestigious organization that hosts one of the most prestigious and oldest persuasion contests in the nation (Interstate Oratorical Association, 2014). The contests consist of only oratory, or persuasive speeches that represent the two best speeches from each state in the country. Speeches focus more on content than speed, as the contest has no time limit for competitors, and only imposes a 1,800-word count limit. All speeches are made publicly available after each contest. I selected these speeches as texts for my analysis because they are considered to be the best of the best in the nation as all of the speeches given at the IOA contest are one of the top two speeches from the state in which the students attend college.

This intercollegiate event started in 1874, and is composed of approximately twenty state collegiate forensic organizations. The organization's purpose is to conduct an annual competition where participants in the contest represent the top two finalists in each of the respective state qualifying contests (Reynolds, 1983, p. 121). One hundred years after the inception of the Interstate Oratory Contest, the National Forensic Association began its national tournament and has selected a champion in persuasive speaking each year. In 1978 the American Forensic Association began its tournament and has also selected a "national champion" at each contest. Examining the results for NFA, AFA and Interstate over the past thirty-five years, it is rare to find a contestant who has won both an AFA and/or NFA persuasive speaking title AND been victorious at Interstate. In fact, due to the nature of qualifying two contestants from each state, not every AFA or NFA champion has even qualified for the Interstate Oratory Contest.

The first Interstate contest (Interstate Oratorical Contest or ISO or IOA) was held on February 22, 1874, in Galesburg, Illinois. Students from Wisconsin, Iowa and Illinois were the first entrants. Judges considered thought, style and delivery when judging this first contest; an annual contest has been held every year since 1874. From 1887 through 1936 only the best orator represented each state, but in 1936 the members of the organization decided to hold two divisions- one for men and one for women. Monetary awards for the winner continued until the awards were discontinued by the voting IOA membership in 1953. This format of separate divisions existed until 1973, when the association voted to return to a single division with each state being represented now by two orators (Interstate Oratorical Association, 2014).

In 1891 the first Winning Orations was published; it consisted of the first and second place speeches from 1874-1890. A second volume was published in 1907 in the same format. From 1908 until the 1930's, each state or college that sent a representative to the contest was responsible for publishing the students' speech. It was in 1934 that the IOA finally took full responsibility for the publication of all orations delivered at the contest. This practice continues today under the title, *Winning Orations*. Analyzing at the persuasive structures used in each of the final round speeches should give a clear understanding of the prevalent persuasive structures for that decade, and allow insight on the shift of persuasion in forensics and in education.

Research on Shifts in Persuasion

Research on persuasion within the field of forensics as well as in academia as a whole shines light on the issues in persuasion present in the speeches coded for this thesis. This type of analysis and approach to the IOA is not unique. In her 1983 piece "'Winning' Orations?: A study of Select Interstate Oratorical Speeches", in *The National Forensic Journal,* Christina L. Reynolds makes the claim that forensic pieces corroborate the views of what represents good oration based upon structure, argument, support information and delivery. Reynolds' study examined thirteen speeches from 1974 to 1981 that focused on human disease, but focused on the "persuasive" characteristic of the speeches in a similar manner to how I approach analyzing the 35 speeches in this thesis.

The unique aspect of persuasion, specifically successful persuasion, in forensics is that the whole situation is very much shrouded in subjective opinion and results. You have students who are trying to persuade their audience, specifically their judge or judges,

to believe that their argument is the most supported and believable in hopes of placing first in the round they are in. This leaves the judge with the power to decided what they feel is "most persuasive" in the round, which can be impacted by personal beliefs, delivery of the speaker, the audience reaction, the topic of the speech, as well as a whole host of other areas. This is one of the primary areas that many in the field of forensics have pushed for more research, but at this time, very little is available on the subject, but if the IOA sees the need to have judges from outside the forensic community judge, maybe the discussion and research within the community will start to see the need for further investigation and discussion.

The idea of speaking publicly to convince others to agree with your convictions has existed since the fourth and fifth centuries B.C., when Greek citizens could speak effectively in legal settings, ceremonial and political arenas, they were respected due to their abilities to articulate their thoughts. Dialogue is an integral part of any speech, discussion or interaction and is something that every individual is exposed to on a daily basis, but the grounding for that dialogue and the commitment to the dialogue from both the speaker and the receiver provides two very parallel interpretations and concerns. This is the basic concern our culture has with persuasion in public discourse, the possibility and ability for it to be used in manipulative and "non-pure" manners, meaning that if someone in a public setting is persuasive enough they can convince a public to agree and follow their ideas, regardless of how extreme they may be (i.e. Hitler, Mussolini, etc.). Knoblauch (1998) argues the goal and focus of each teacher is inherently different, as is the pedagogies they may ascribe to.

The idea of real world application of theory is much clearer in application in competitive forensics. Benoit & Smythe (2003) state, "Traditional rhetorical theory adopts the perspective of rhetors rather than auditors. This is not to say that rhetorical theory ignores audiences, but that, in the main, traditional rhetorical theory focuses on the question of how rhetors persuade" (pg. 96). This is not stating that the discourse and the audience's point of view are the same thing, but rather articulating the need of creating critical consumers of discourse. If we consider this idea from the Aristotelian view that rhetoric can be defined as the faculty of observing in any given case the available means of persuasion, then the focus of audience in forensics competition reflects the need and concerns that are becoming more and more apparent in education. George Campbell explains this in, Philosophy of *Rhetoric*, "In speaking there is always some end proposed, or some effect which the speaker intends to produce on the hearer," (Campbell, 1963, p. 1), reinforcing the idea that the audience is the target of the orators persuasive message(s).

Most of the events that exist in forensics have been investigated using quantitative and qualitative methods as a means of attempting to dissect the events to see where events overlap one another, distinguish themselves from one another, and provide educational and professional benefits for students. However, due to the cultural shifts that occur outside of forensics, and eventually permeate themselves into forensics competition, one could question how often and in what way should researchers investigate and code for shifts in the activity.

Impacts of Persuasion Shifts within Forensics

The manner in which we teach and coach persuasion in forensics is dependent on the type of program an individual is running, and the type of tournaments their program competes at during the season. The IOA contest challenges these practices, as the format of the competition is different from the standard competition format for collegiate competition. The average contest allows students only ten minutes to give their speech to the audience in the room, with no limit on source citation or word count. The IOA contest does not have a time limit, but a twenty percent source citation limit for the speech and a 1,800-word count max for the speech.

While the time limits, word count limits, and source citation limits can differ from tournament to tournament and national to national the focus here is on what we teaching and coaching students in forensics to do in regards to persuasion today, compared to the historical trends present in the research in this area. Persuasion is meant to be a means to reach as large of a segment of the population as possible about a significant issue and have them reevaluate their stance or understanding of the issue, and hopefully cause them to take some course of action about the issue. The more rules we apply to a event within forensics, or a particular event, the more difficult it becomes for students to truly be persuasive.

As the results of the coding indicated, patterns begin to develop within forensics due to students not only trying to meet all of the rules for competitions, but also due to students wanting to win. If we think back to the concept of the citizen orator proposed by Aristotle and compare that to what we have in forensics today, there is no comparison. The true nature of persuasion exists within the creation of a connection between the

speaker and the audience, and the genuine and emotional portrayal of concern about an issue. By removing the time limit on persuasive speeches the IOA takes a step in the right direction by not forcing a student to rush over key elements of their speech and to allow the students to talk in a natural pace and personal manner. But with the rules the forensic community has about source citation, and in some situations word count, students are never fully free to be genuinely persuasive as we are training and telling them to speak in a certain "model" fashion, rather then speaking in a way that persuasion naturally occurs; by speaking from the heart.

This is where the discussion about the focus of a program usually comes into play. Does a coach focus more on winning, teaching their students how to speak well, or on helping students find confidence in themselves as a speaker by helping them find their voice? The perfect answer would be for them to hopefully help their students achieve all three, but with the large amount of importance stressed on winning and being a "successful" program, more often then not, one of these three options has to give way to at least one of the others.

Sadly, it seems that the days of elocutionary societies are gone. Where students used to come and perform and critique one another not necessarily for glory or a small award, but instead as a means of learning and fostering the spirit of public speaking, and engaging in conversations, discussions, and interactions with like-minded peers, faculty, and community members. Meaning, that if the focus has changed, within the contest and the community, the speeches have changed as well. If this change exists, the historical roots of this activity are being pushed aside, and the focus instead, is on winning.

Preview of Methodology

Scholarship in forensics has researched competitive persuasive speaking from a number of perspectives. White and Messer (2003) point out over the past twenty years, much scholarly attention has been given to the study of competitive persuasive speaking. Some forensic scholars have tried to trace the development of the event as competitive norms have changed performance expectations (Smith, 1996; Sellnow & Ziegelmueller, 1988; Reynolds, 1983), others have looked at the role coaches and judges have played in shaping the nature of the event (Dean, 1992; Friedley, 1992; Benson & Friedley, 1982), and some have made recommendations on the broader role of argumentation and forensics pedagogy about how to enhance the educational aspects of the event (Klumpp, 1992; Reynolds, 1992; Sellnow, 1992; Ballinger & Brand, 1987). What is missing in the existing literature is current research on the changing persuasive practices within actual competition speeches, and analyses of what strategies work best for a given time, and how those characteristics change over time. This thesis aims to help start the dialogue in this less studied and missing area.

Because the focus of this thesis is on changes in the persuasive norms and practices of forensic speeches from a historical viewpoint, a historical approach best fits the needs of the thesis. It is with this in mind that the methodology of this thesis is a content analysis of the final round speeches of the IOA, due to the focus placed on key concepts of persuasion and persuasive structures over the course of the history of the IOA, with the data set used in the thesis coming from final round speeches of the IOA contest during the last fifty years. A content analysis approach allows coders to discern shifts in persuasive strategies in speeches. By looking at specific concepts of persuasion and

coding for them, content analysis can bring to light the most relevant persuasive structures and strategies in a speech, and changes in these strategies as they have occurred over time in the contest. Since content analysis only codes the text of the speech, the delivery element can not be analyzed. This allows for the focus of the thesis and the research to be on the persuasive language and content of the speeches analyzed, because the content is the foundation and basis of any speech. The written aspects of the speech appear first to any reader and is constructed first by the orator. The delivery and interaction elements come second, as they are developed and polished off of the written text. In forensics competition the focus commonly sways to delivery to discern which speech is better than others, but the primary aspect and focus should be on the content of the speech, which is the focus of this thesis. This focus is taken from the historical principles and ideas presented by Aristotle and Socrates, which are still used and taught in our classrooms and in forensics today.

Content analysis has seven major elements in written messages that can be counted. Those seven elements are, "words or terms, themes, characters, paragraphs, items, concepts, and semantics" (Berelson, 1952). This thesis takes these seven major elements and creates five qualitative categories for analysis: topic, structure, implied audience, persona, and supporting information/evidence.

Preview of Thesis Structure

I analyze the representative sample of final round speeches from the 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000 and 2010 Interstate Oratorical Association National Competition. By identifying key themes within the speeches and coding those themes in regards to the

coding categories designed to represent key persuasive elements in the IOA speeches, an understanding of how forensics persuasion has evolved and how these changes relate to how general society views persuasion, can be drawn within the forensics context, and discussed for general society. An old colloquial phrase states that, “the speaker is shaped by the situation and culture in which they speak, but in turn also shapes those with them and the culture in which they reside”.

In chapter two we explore the existing research that has investigated persuasive structure use and shifts in academia and forensics competitions. Chapter three gives an overview of the methods used for the thesis, giving details on the categories and methodology for the investigation of the IOA speeches. Chapter four discusses the results of the research and clearly defines the differences in findings from each decade of the IOA speeches analyzed. Chapter five explores possible implications for persuasion education and forensics as a result of this thesis, and proposes ideas for future investigations.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This thesis participates in subject matter that is part of a larger history of forensics research and practice, and expands upon that conversation by examining how persuasion has changed in comparison to historical trends. As Bartanen and Littlefield state in their 2014 book *Forensics in America: A History*, "Such analysis [forensics], while intrinsically valuable as a part of a comprehensive understanding of the history of higher education in the United States, is also significant in providing a context for understanding the role forensics may play elsewhere in the twenty-first century" (p. 2). Forensics emerged from a need and want for students to be able to develop and articulate their arguments in an educated and relatable manner, an idea that is embodied in our classrooms and in forensic competition to this day. Since the goal of this thesis is to uncover any changes that have occurred over the course of the decades being investigated, it only seems natural to extend on the works already done on the contest.

While many scholars research forensics as a whole, most research focuses on the pedagogy of why the activity exists, what role it plays in education, and the changes that have occurred in the rules of the activity and the competition within the activity. Not a large amount of attention has been given to the IOA contest, even though it is one of the oldest and readily accessible documentations of the history and evolution of forensics. The largest cluster of research on the IOA contest, or persuasive speaking in general, stems from the 1983 issues of the *National Forensic Journal*, which is almost entirely devoted to persuasive speaking in forensics. In 1988, Sellnow and Ziegelmueller examined, "major compositional aspects of successful persuasive speeches in order to

better understand the nature of the event [IOA] and to identify shifts in judging and teaching standards over time" (p. 75). This article sets up the three main areas of the literature review for this thesis: forensics pedagogy, persuasion education, and competitive forensics. Before delving directly into these three areas, a foundation of forensic research pertaining to public address, specifically persuasion, must be established.

Research in forensics over the last thirty years spans across a wide spectrum of the activity, leaving some areas with a high concentration of research, and others with minimal investigation. As Bartanen and Littlefield (2014) write, "Public address has a long and established historical-critical research tradition in the study of communication in America. Historical-critical research focuses primarily on reporting the nature and chronology of events and analyzes their significance or meaning" (p.3). Yet, that long and established research line has moved, evolved, and shifted with the needs and wants of researchers, as well as the forensic and academic communities. "However, the primary emphasis of public address studies have been on the influence of single individuals and social movements rather than on broader and less directed areas such as competitive forensics" (Bartanen & Littlefield, 2014, pp. 3-4).

When looking at the research that relates to the Interstate Oratorical Association contest there are four themes that emerge: education, pedagogy, evidence/source citation, and ethos. These four areas are echoed later in this thesis as they are contained within the coding scheme, but they also represent the key focal areas for coaches and educators in the activity. The balance of these four themes needs to be considered by a coach every

time a student prepares a speech, as these are the core ideas they are judged upon in competition.

Olsen (2010) addresses four themes in his article, where he looks at the research our discipline has placed on the contest, and how we are now shaping our coaching to create "successful" persuasive speeches. This push in competition shifts into the classrooms when, as Olsen (2010) explains,

> Today, public speaking textbook publishers regularly rely on the texts and example speeches from the Interstate Oratory Contest to illustrate successful persuasive speaking. Without a doubt, the impact this historic contest has had on the field of oratory has been substantial. However, few scholarly efforts have been made within the past twenty years to analyze current trends of success at this unique event. (pp. 196-197)

Olsen's article also points out a very key difference between the IOA contest, and all other forensic competitions students compete in throughout the season. While coaches, former competitors, and educators judge most competitions, no one fitting those descriptions judges the final round of the IOA contest. "The final round Interstate panel typically comprised of local politicians, media experts, and prominent community members" (Olsen, 2010, p. 197). This is where the Interstate contest truly shows the challenging of the competitive norm or forensics, attempting the bridge the gap between competitive persuasive speaking, and the persuasion used, understood, and accepted by the general public. This also presents the issues investigated in the next subset of research concerning forensics, the impact forensic pedagogy has on persuasion education.

Forensics Pedagogy and Persuasion Education

The idea of speaking publicly to convince others to agree with your convictions has existed since the fourth and fifth centuries B.C., when Greek citizens could speak effectively in legal settings, ceremonial and political arenas, they were respected due to their abilities to articulate their thoughts. This function of speech is still prominent in our culture. J. R. Martin (1995) explains,

> There are many respects in which texts can be constructed as social processes of negotiation. Fairclough (1989, 1992a), for example, has drawn attention to the contemporary foregrounding of certain interpersonal resources in public discourse- the "synthetic personalization" whereby authorities attempt to construct a patently coercive solidarity with subjects they are seeking to control. (p. 33)

This function is fully used in forensic competition, where students use their resources and negotiate and compete with other students from other universities. This rich, historical aspect of forensics is what makes the activity strong in its convictions for education and competition, but little has been done to investigate the link forensics has to education. "Despite a tradition dating back to at least 1870, little historical research has materialized focusing on modern American forensics, particularly as an educational movement" (Bartanen & Littlefield, 2014, p. 4). This lack of research has limited our abilities to understand just how forensics creates a dialogue between students, which in turn, has an impact on our dialogue in the classroom and our society.

Dialogue is an integral part of any speech, discussion or interaction and is something that every individual is exposed to on a daily basis, but the grounding for that

dialogue and the commitment to the dialogue from both the speaker and the receiver provides two very parallel interpretations and concerns. C. H. Knoblauch presents these concerns in approaching rhetorical argument and teaching practice in his 1998 essay in *College English* stating;

> Obviously, I intend no casual connection between rhetorical argument and teaching practice. The relationship is properly dialectical, each term conditioning and reshaping the other. Many, if not most, teachers understand their classrooms and make sensible choices with little direct regard for theoretical knowledge. They are influenced, as a rule, less by concern for some abstract consistency than by pragmatic, seemingly self-evident beliefs about educational goals and an experienced, no less practical consciousness of "what works" for them in achieving those goals. (p. 126)

These are the basic concerns our culture has with persuasion in public discourse, the possibility and ability for it to be used in manipulative and "non-pure" manners, meaning that if someone in a public setting is persuasive enough they can convince a public to agree and follow their ideas, regardless of how extreme they may be (i.e. Hitler, Mussolini, etc.). Knoblauch argues the goal and focus of each teacher is inherently different, as is the pedagogies they may ascribe to, however, there are a three areas that consistently overlap between all educators wither they be coaches, teachers, or administrators.

The first of these is the need for an apparent and clear argument. This concept is one that extends well beyond forensics tournaments, to the application of theories and ideas both inside and beyond the classroom. When looking specifically at forensics

pedagogy, the goal should be on the educational merits of teaching students how to construct their arguments for a speech, class, or discussion in a manner that allows them to create a clear argument in any situation. This seems to be common sense, as Kevin W. Dean offers in his 1990 article, "Encouraging Forensics Pedagogy" in the *National Forensic Journal*, "Another "given" is that the goal of forensics pedagogy should be, in some way, to enrich the educational experience of the activity" (p. 33). Meaning that regardless if the student is being taught in a classroom or in a practice/squad room for forensics competition, the end goal should be the same.

The second of these is the connection of the audience to a concern (Knoblauch, 1998). When looking at all forms of persuasive speaking there is some type of call to action. Advertisers want us to by their products, politicians want us to vote for them, and in competitive forensics students want us to take up the fight for the cause they are speaking about. The key to connecting an audience to a concern/cause in any persuasive setting is establishing ones ethos, meaning that one must show that they are well-read and versed in the topic in order to allow the audience connect to the concern being presented. In the classroom this is normally done through analysis of texts to see what type of language was used by a speaker to connect to their audience, and similar methods are used in forensics pedagogy as well to establish a link between speaker and topic and topic and audience.

The third is a clear understanding and application of theory (Knoblauch, 1998). Argumentation theory is closely linked to forensics as the basis of debate and elocution stems from a basic argument. When looking at this from a non-competitive standpoint we must consider how we have students demonstrate their understanding and comprehension

of theory in the classroom. Most times we conduct lectures and have small discussions and encourage students to write papers, but does this truly show they can articulate their understanding of the material? Application of theory in forensic pedagogy is the direct use and citation of theory within speeches and debates as a means to establish warrants and claims to the ideas being articulated by the speaker to the audience.

This is where forensics allows the connections of need and practice to be drawn. "Evolving from literary societies, political spectacles, and town meetings, forensics education in the United States during the twentieth century reflects the promise and turmoil of the so-called American century" (Bartanen & Littlefield, 2014, p. 1). Forensics, even in the beginning stages, tried to address not only cultural concerns and questions, but allow students and educators to explore theory in new venues. Dean and Levasseur (1989), take this idea of the understanding and application of theory to a different level when they propose using a forensics model for basic public speaking courses; in essence, a hybrid between the competition and educational aspects of the field, a hybrid many coaches struggle to portray and justify. Many of us have experienced the variety of skill levels students bring into a basic public speaking course. As Dean and Levasseur (1989) explain;

> Inevitably, communication educators find themselves dealing with students performing on a diversity of skill levels within the basic course. Varied skill levels are especially obvious in basic public speaking courses where some students, due to high school experience, forensics work, or simply innate talent, demonstrate clear mastery of basic organizational, research, writing and oral performance skills that keep others floundering. (pp. 133-134)

The issue they propose here is not a new occurrence. Persuasion has existed in the formalized education society for centuries, but is commonly identified to have gained ground in American culture, in terms of public discourse and argumentation, in elocutionary societies in communities and on college campuses. Seas (2006) explains,

> To avoid dismissing the complexities of our students' behaviors without, in turn, dismissing a critical approach to composition, I suggest that we examine how students negotiate the critical composition course as a rhetorical space in which they are asked to accept certain enthymematic messages about their subjectivity that they may be unable or unwilling to help construct, thus resulting in apparent resistance. (p. 427).

While this article focuses on rhetorical criticism and not necessarily persuasion, the rhetorical situation that revolves around how we teach persuasion warrants the consideration of this point. How we teach students the impact the understanding and receptiveness an audience has to persuasion strategies, theories and constructs, and how that directly impacts persuasive messages is the disconnect between how we teach persuasion and what persuasion has become within forensics. While not directly addressing the issue within forensics, Sea's article allows the line that has been created between the classroom and competition room to be seen more clearly.

One area of focus to consider is the rhetorical grammar included within a speech or rhetorical situation. Micciche (2004) explains the need for this practice,

> Rhetorical grammar analysis encourages students to view writing as a material social practice in which meaning is actively made, rather than passively relayed or effortlessly produced. The study of rhetorical grammar can demonstrate to

> students that language does purposeful, consequential work in the world- work that can be learned and applied. (p. 716)

Grammar is a key part to the credibility of a speaker, and an integral part of how we teach English and basic public speaking in the United States. To use proper grammar is to speak in a manner that allows a student to establish credibility and lay groundwork for effective communication. By emphasizing this in how we view and instruct persuasive and rhetorical criticism we can clarify the "real world" application for our students. As Micciche (2004) furthers, "Rhetorical grammar instruction is just as central to composition's driving commitment to teach critical thinking and cultural critique as is reading rhetorically, understanding the significance of cultural difference, and engaging in community work through service-learning initiatives" (p. 717), reinforcing the need for a more forensic view of how to approach and critique discourse.

Another key area to distinguish here are the underlying motives embedded in how we teach rhetorical discourse from the rhetors perspective in our classrooms. When examining this through how we teach persuasion and criticism as a whole it is easy to see that we focus on the rhetor and the content of the speech and not the end result of the speech. In classrooms instructors focus on the basis of theory and understanding the framework and concepts of the theories for students, but in some cases that is where the conversation stops. Without an application of critique of the impact of the theories in or on speeches and the role the theories and persuasion plays in our culture, the knowledge portrayed in the classroom falls short without a real world application.

Competitive Forensics

Competitive forensics is an aspect of our discipline that has a rich history and impact on the very nature of our field. It was not only one of the first areas to allow students to voice and show their understanding of theory and practice, as well as express their ideas and convictions, but also helped to lay the framework for key aspects of our field as they exist today.

> The demand for forensics training and competition opportunities inspired the creation of independent speech departments and later was a factor in the establishment of the National Association of Teachers of Speech, which remains (under its current title, the National Communication Association) the major professional organization for communication professionals. (Bartanen & Littlefield, 2014, p. 1).

In a way, forensics has helped to create the department and research settings we are all familiar with, and has given our students a venue to show what they have learned in regards to theory, public speaking, and argumentation.

The idea of real world application of theory is much clearer in application in competitive forensics. Benoit and Smythe (2003) state, "Traditional rhetorical theory adopts the perspective of rhetors rather than auditors. This is not to say that rhetorical theory ignores audiences, but that, in the main, traditional rhetorical theory focuses on the question of how rhetors persuade" (pg. 96). This is not stating that the discourse and the audience's point of view are the same thing, but rather articulating the need of creating critical consumers of discourse. If we consider this idea from the Aristotelian view that rhetoric can be defined as the faculty of observing in any given case the available means

of persuasion, then the focus of audience in forensics competition reflects the need and concerns that are becoming more and more apparent in education.

This type of analysis and approach to the IOA is not unique. In her 1983 piece Reynolds makes the claim that forensic pieces corroborate the views of what represents good oration based upon structure, argument, support information and delivery. Reynolds' study examined thirteen speeches from 1974 to 1981 that focused on human disease, but focused on the "persuasive" characteristic of the speeches in a similar manner to how I approach analyzing the 35 speeches in this thesis.

The unique aspect of persuasion, specifically successful persuasion, in forensics is that the whole situation is very much shrouded in subjective opinion and results. You have students who are trying to persuade their audience, specifically their judge or judges, to believe that their argument is the most supported and believable in hopes of placing first in the round they are in. This leaves the judge with the power to decided what they feel is "most persuasive" in the round, which can be impacted by personal beliefs, delivery of the speaker, the audience reaction, the topic of the speech, as well as a whole host of other areas. This is where the forensics community has had a hard time quantifying what they view to be good persuasion, and creating the link between the educational aspects of the activity with the competitive aspects of the competitions.

Campbell (1963) explains this in Philosophy of *Rhetoric*, "In speaking there is always some end proposed, or some effect which the speaker intends to produce on the hearer" (p. 1), reinforcing the idea that the audience is the target of the orators persuasive message(s). With the gap between how some people view persuasion in practice, the classroom, and the professional world this thesis examines the practice of persuasive

speaking in the IOA speeches to interpret how persuasion has evolved in the last fifty years. Rather than focusing on reinforcing what other scholars have discovered, this thesis hopes to expand on our understanding of how we teach these structures and strategies in specific ways in the classroom, in the competition setting, and how we can ensure our students can transfer this knowledge into their careers in the professional world.

The research in the communication field addresses all three of the previously mentioned areas consistently in research, but one aspect of forensics research has not consistently been researched; the Interstate Oratory contest. While scholars in the communication field have looked at the structures of speeches from the Interstate Oratory contest in the past, it has been over 25 years since anyone has researched the contest to investigate shifts in persuasive structures and trends represented in these speeches. The last analysis of changes notice in the contest was by Sellnow and Ziegelmueller (1988). This type of analysis and investigation is key to understanding to role forensics plays in our modern society, as the influence of society on forensics is quite clear to those in the forensics community.

Interstate Oratorical Association

A well-established paradigm in the forensics community, the Interstate Oratorical Association established the grounding for many current national organizations, and the scope of what forensics is today. The history of the Interstate Oratorical Association is one that stems over 140 years, dating back to 1873. According to the Interstate Oratorical Association webpage and Bartanen & Littlefield (2014), the IOA began with three

student members of the Adelphi Society of Know College sent a letter to several colleges in the surrounding area proposing an intercollegiate contest in oratory. Favorable replies were received from the Illinois State Industrial University, Monmouth College, Chicago University, Iowa State University, Iowa College, and Beloit College. The first contest was held at Galesburg, Illinois, February 27, 1874 (Bartanen & Littlefield, 2014, p. 32). This may have been the first intercollegiate contest in oratory ever held in the United States (Bartanen & Littlefield, 2014, p. 73).

At the first contest, it was decided to form the Interstate Oratorical Association that was to operate in connection with the state associations, as is the case today. At a meeting held in Chicago, June 9, 1874, a permanent organization was formed including Wisconsin, Illinois, Ohio, Indiana, and Michigan. During the years 1874-1936, there was a single division of the contest. A single orator represented each state. In 1936, it was decided to hold two divisions, one male division and one female division, which continued until 1973. At the business meeting of its centennial contest, the association voted to return to a single division in 1974, with each state to be represented by the top two orators selected at the various state contests (Interstate Oratorical Association, 2014).

The earliest volume of the *Quarterly Journal of Public Speaking* devoted attention to the art of oratory (Gunnison, 1915). Throughout the years, the Interstate Oratory Association has been the subject of a variety of studies, attempting to examine what comprises successful oratory. Today, public speaking textbook publishers regularly rely on the texts and examples of speeches from the Interstate Oratory Contest to illustrate successful persuasive speaking (Olsen, 196-197). Without a doubt, the impact this historic contest has had on the field of oratory has been substantial. However, few

scholarly efforts have been made within the past twenty years to analyze current trends of success at this unique event. As the Interstate Oratorical Association website (2014) states, “The Interstate Oratorical Association was created in the spirit of ambition and the desire to excel, as well as a way to fuel the fire of competition among different institutes”.

While the IOA has existed for well over one-hundred years, the last fifty years show strong shifts in persuasive tactics and have been marked by changes in what is judged to be strong persuasive strategies. Investigating these contests, due to the large shift in persuasive theories and structures that occurred during these fifty years, as well as the large amount of social movements that occurred in our society during this time period. It stands to reason that a forensics competition focusing on persuasive speaking would address the social concerns and movements of the time period in a direct and academic manner, and would also reflect any shifts that would occur in persuasive structures, as they would be implemented in the public and forensic spheres. As a result of this understanding, I selected these five time periods as representative placeholders of their decades to allow myself to glimpse into the time period and see any potential shifts in how topics were addressed, how speeches were structured, and how the IOA competition field may have shifted as a result of the changing times.

CHAPTER 3: METHODS

This thesis uses content analysis methods to analyze the persuasive strategies used in IOA final round speeches. Content analysis is "any of several research techniques used to describe and systematically analyze the content of written, spoken, or pictorial communication; such as books, newspapers, television programs, or interview transcripts" (Vogt, 2005, p. 59). The researcher will be looking for "elements of individual instances or general patterns" (Reinard, 2008, p. 304) across the IOA final round speeches. Since the texts already exist and are readily available, it is an unobtrusive method. Since there are no human subjects, the research can be conducted without the use of the Institutional Review Board (IRB).

Research using qualitative content analysis focuses on the characteristics of language as communication with attention to the content or contextual meaning of the text (Black, 1980; Budd, Thorp, & Donohew, 1967; Lindvist, 1981; McTavish & Pirro, 1990; Tesch, 1990). Content analysis can be used to analyze, categorize, and generalize large amounts of data (Macnamara, 2005). Qualitative content analysis goes beyond merely counting words to examining language intensely for the purpose of classifying large amount of text into an efficient number of categories that represent similar meanings (Weber, 1990).

Sampling Method

The selection criterion for this thesis was the analysis of the top speeches in given years of the IOA contest to investigate changes within the speeches between decades. The

researcher drew speeches from a predetermined list of speeches occurring at contests from the beginning of a decade, due to this selection process allowing for a more apparent shift in persuasive trends and structures to be seen between the contests within the analysis of the speeches. Prior to embarking on the data collection, the researcher reviewed the IOA, American Forensics Association, and National Forensics Association websites and found that the only way to gather speeches was to find direct copies of Winning Orations, the only place the speeches are published. The researcher was able to collect 5 different copies of *Winning Orations* by contacting Larry Schnoor, the secretary of the IOA, who had access to the Minnesota State University-Mankato archive, which contains all currently available copies of *Winning Orations*. The 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000 and 2010 publications were selected due to these publications meeting the researcher's goals of sampling speeches from the first contest of a given decade, as well as having the publications cover a significant period of time and change for the IOA. The total number of speeches collected from these five texts was thirty-five (N = 35), with the 1970 text contain twelve final round speeches (six from the men's division and six from the women's division), the 1980, 1990, and 2000 texts containing six speeches, and the 2010 text containing five speech (one of the finalists speeches was missing).

Selected Texts

1970

The contest occurring in 1970 is the most unique contest in the sample I analyze. It is the only contest that contains finalist from the separate men's and women's divisions,

as all later contests analyzed contained only one field of competitors consisting of both male and female competitors. The 1970 contest was held at in West Yellowstone, Montana at a non-university location. Diane Klemme from Wayne State University wrote the winning speech for the women's division during for contest entitled, "The Age of Gerontion" (Klemme, 1970). Art Campbell of William Jewell College wrote the winning speech for the men's division during for contest entitled, "Is it Really Good News?," (Campbell, 1970). There are twelve speeches from this contest in the sample, six from the men's division and six from the women's division. While in theory it is possible for their to be one-hundred contestants at the tournament in the more modern format, and a similar idea can be applied to this year as the top female and male competitors from each state are eligible to represent their state at the contest, just under 60 students participated at the 1970 contest.

1980

The contest occurring in 1980 is the first in the sample to reflect the modern format of one comprehensive open division of competition. Kendra Creasy of Miami University of Ohio wrote the winning speech for this contest entitled, " A Time for Peace" (Creasy, 1980). The Colorado Oratorical Association held this contest at a non-university location in Denver, Colorado this year. The speeches being investigated are the six final round speeches, which were the "best" of nearly sixty contestants at this tournament, one of the largest in the sample. Of the fifty states eligible to send students to this contest only thirty-one states are represented in this years contest.

1990

The Wisconsin Oratorical Association held the contest at the University of Wisconsin-Stout in Menomonie, Wisconsin in 1990. Karen Kimmey of Arizona State University wrote the winning speech for this contest entitled, "Time Theft: The Silent Thief" (Kimmey, 1990). The contest occurring in 1990 consisted of just over fifty students representing 28 states. Like the other years being investigated, I am investigating the six final round speeches from this contest for persuasive structures and strategies.

2000

The 2000 contest was held at Tallahassee Community College in Tallahassee, Florida. Jennifer Sweeney from Glendale Community College wrote the winning speech for this contest entitled, "Racial Profiling" (Sweeney, 2000). The contest occurring in 2000 consisted of just over fifty students representing 29 states. Like the other years, the six final round speeches from this contest are being analyzed.

2010

The 2010 contest was held at the University of Oklahoma in Norman, Oklahoma. The winning speech from this contest was written by Nick Miller from the University of Wisconsin- Eau Clair entitled, "Connecting the Nation: One Power Grid" (Miller, 2010). While this is the most recent sample explored in my thesis, it is also the smallest contest being explored, as there were fewer than forty-five students competing at this contest. Those forty-five students also only represented twenty-four states, which is also the lowest representation in the sample.

Defining the Categories

This content analysis has five categories: topic, structure, implied audience, persona, and supporting information/evidence. These categories stem from Burgchardt's 2005 edition of *Readings in Rhetorical Criticism*. Burgchardt presents multiple views on different methods of rhetorical criticism, which allows for a clearer understanding of how each type can be used for analysis of the speeches for this thesis. Burgchardt's anthology contains scholarship that looks at rhetorical elements of speech that have been most dominant for the last few decades, allowing the multiple dominant elements to be used to analyze the speeches for this thesis. Combining ideas present throughout Burgchardt's anthology and comparing those to categories and ideas coded for in the existing forensics literature, the following five categories were created to answer the research question for the thesis.

Topic

The coding method for this particular aspect of the speeches aimed at addressing how the speaker framed their topic throughout their speech, meaning, how many times is the topic directly, or indirectly referenced in the speech. While the topic may be implied by the title of the speech or the sources used, direct statements or indirect references to the topic within the speech can be used as a persuasive mechanism, leading this to be the first area of coding. Examples of this could be repeating words from the title within the speech to help the audience identify the main topic of the speech, or specifically stating what the focus of the speech is within the speech.

Structure

Coding for persuasive structures of the speeches allowed distinction between the speeches in each decade to become clear. Since the focus of the thesis is to investigate the possible shifts in persuasive structures and strategies used, the structures used in the speeches must be investigated. By coding each structure type used the researcher can document the changes, if any, which occur in the IOA speech structures investigated. To truly understand the differences in structures of speeches between the speeches, there are five subcategories for structure that the coders need to identify: problem-cause-solution, Monroe's motivated sequence, jeremiad, other, and combination. These five categories were chosen as the literature reviewed and other texts examined indicated these categories to cover the breadth of structures used in forensic competition.

The problem-cause-solution structure is a basic three part persuasive structure with the first main point addressing a problem, the second main point addressing the cause(s) of the problem, and the last main point presenting a solution(s) to the problem. Monroe's motivated sequence is an organizational pattern of persuasive speaking used to develop a sense of want or need in an audience in the first main point, then satisfy that want or need in the second main point, and to help the audience get enthused about the advantages of that solution in the last main point of the speech. The jeremiad structure contains three specific aspects as well, a reference to either a biblical or spiritual teaching, a demonstration of how a group or community has failed to live up to that teaching, and a suggestion of where that group or community would be with reform. The other and combination categories represent either a structure that is not one of the three listed above

(as these three were the most prevalent structures covered in literature used for this thesis) or a combination of any of the structures listed.

This method of coding for this theme comes from Campbell and Jamison's ideas on form and genre, "If the forms from which genres are constituted have the characteristics indicated by Frye, they will have the kinds of forms that rhetoricians ordinarily call "strategies"—substantive and stylistic forms chosen to respond to situational requirements" (Campbell & Jamison, 2005, p. 407). The key distinction to be made here is the notion of "situational requirements" for persuasive speaking.

The situation of a persuasive speech has certain contextual and situation needs that need to be met in order to achieve the goal of persuading an audience, and these are uniquely different from the ideas that need to be conveyed in an information type speech. The unique aspect of the speeches being examined in this thesis is that they are written and performed in forensic competition, where the judges are critiquing the effectiveness of the content and delivery of the speech in regards to the rhetorical situation. While this thesis cannot draw claims about the effectiveness of the speech in terms of delivery, by coding for different forms and stylistic genre elements in the text, specific constructs of persuasive strategies will be observed.

Implied Audience

An implied audience is an imaginary audience determined by an auditor or reader as the text's constructed audience (Perelman & Olbrechts-Tyteca, 1969). The implied audience is not the actual audience, but the one that can be inferred by reading or analyzing the text. There are two types of audiences to consider for persuasive speeches:

particular and general. The coder will identify if the message of the speech is geared towards a specific aspect of our society (particular), and if confirmed, will identify who they believe that specific audience to be. Unlike a particular audience, a general audience approach is meant to address all possible listeners/readers of a speech. If the coder feels that the speaker was gearing towards a general audience, they will identify the implied audience as general. Examples of this are the speaker stating specific audiences that can help to solve the problem presented by a speaker in a speech, or when the speaker uses a broad audience scope to connect to the entire audiences.

Persona

The analysis conducted for this theme is closely related to the method of close textual analysis or "close reading" considering language structures such as metaphors, tone and the use of formal reasoning to convey a topic and create the persona used by the speaker. The five types of personas to be identified by coders are; authoritative, inclusive, authentic, second persona, and third persona. To do this coders will use a similar method to what Stephen E. Lucas used in, *The Stylistic Artistry of the Declaration of Independence*. As Lucas states," This essay seeks to illuminate that artistry by probing the discourse microscopically—at the level of sentence, phrase, word, and syllable" (Lucas, 1989). Considering topic on this deep of a level allows for a detailed understanding of how the author of the speech used different methods to connect and relate the topic of their speech to the audience.

Authoritative Persona

An authoritative persona in a speech is one that is substantiated and supported by documentary evidence and appears to exercise the authority the speaker creates in the speaking situation onto the audience. Aspects of an authoritative persona in writing are the use of words that signify power or differentiate levels of expertise or seniority on a subject or situation. An example of this would be the use of an authoritative "I", versus using a collaborative "we". The goal of the authoritative persona is to create the idea that the speaker is more knowledgeable and powerful compared to the individuals being addressed.

Inclusive Persona

An inclusive persona in a speech is one that is accommodating and appears and sounds open to ideas and criticism from the audience (s) being addressed. This persona can be identified by questions or open phrases within a text that appear to invite a response from the audience. An example of this is using "we" or "us" as a means to pull the audience into the speech and specifically into the solutions presented in the speech. The manner in which this persona is crafted creates a more relaxed and natural sounding dialect in the writing, in order to create a non-threatening voice in the speech.

Authentic Persona

An authentic persona is one that sounds and reads as if the speaker/writer was in normal conversation. This style does not heavily rely on sources or figures, but is more based in stories and real-life occurrences. An example of this is how President George W.

Bush used to connect to an audience, using phrases like, “I’m just an average guy like you”. The tone of this persona is more relaxed and conversational sounding then the authoritative and inclusive personas. Looking for stories or personal narratives from the speaker’s life within the speech, or phrases similar to, “I’m just like you” within the text can identify this persona type.

Second Persona

The second persona presents the theoretical concept of the implied audience using the idea of two personae. Edwin Black asserts there is a, “second persona also implied by a discourse, and that persona is its implied auditor,” (Black, 1998, pp. 333). The first persona is the implied rhetoric (the idea of the speaker formed by the audience) and the second persona is the implied audience (the idea of the audience formed by and utilized for persuasion in the speech situation). The coder for this situation would need to identify the first and second persona being used.

Third Persona

The third persona (Audience) is the audience which is not present, or that is excluded, in rhetorical communication. This conception of the third persona relates to the first persona, the "I" in discourse (a speaker and their intent), and the second persona, the "you" in discourse, both of whom participate within a constrained social sphere. Third persona is "the 'it' that is not present, that is objectified in a way that 'you' and 'I' are not." Phillip Wander (1984) discusses the use of the third persona to address marginalized audiences. Third persona, as a theory, seeks to define and critique the rules of rhetoric, to

further consider how we talk about what we talk and who is affected by that discourse. The coder for this situation would need to identify the first and second persona being used in order to identify the marginalized audience, which the third persona represents.

Supporting Information/Evidence

Evidence is a primary aspect of the public speaking and speech writing process. As a speech develops a speaker must use language and stories to connect the topic to the audience. This concept frames the fifth and last area of coding for the researchers. By coding for literary sources, numbers, facts, narratives and stories used in the speeches allows for inferences to be drawn on how these techniques have changed in the IOA final speeches.

Literary Sources

Direct and indirect uses of sources in a speech are ways that speakers add credibility to their claims. Since college students wrote all of the speeches analyzed in this thesis, referencing researchers and professionals in the field of their speech adds legitimacy to their claims. This is a fairly common approach used by students in competitive and educational persuasive speaking. Establishing ethos, pathos and logos in a speech allows for the speaker to build a relationship between the persuasive act and the social structures they are persuading about and participating within. Tracking how many times sources are cited and used within each speech allows researcher to see any shifts in the manner in which sources are used and also the number of sources used by speakers.

Another key piece of understanding the use of literary sources in a speech is looking at how a speaker uses primary and secondary sources in their speech to support their claims

A primary source is an original object or document, the raw material or first-hand information about an idea, situation, or theory. “Primary sources include historical and legal documents, eyewitness accounts, results of experiments, statistical data, pieces of creative writing, and art objects,” (Ithaca College Library, 2014). A secondary source is something written about a primary source. “Secondary sources include comments on, interpretations of, or discussions about the original material,” (Ithaca College Library, 2014). The combination of using these two types of sources as evidence is vital to showing a strong depth of understanding about a topic and establishing speaker credibility.

Evidence is a primary aspect of establishing speaker credibility that has existed since the beginning of the study of public speaking. Ethos, pathos and logos all rely on these different types of evidence in order to build the credibility of a speaker within a speech, or of the writer within a text. The ethical, persuasive, and logical appeals within a speech or a speech text can not only be coded for the first four areas, but for evidence as well to shed light on how large of a role evidence and the other four categories play within each speech.

Number Use

Using numbers or citing statistics in a speech is a way for speakers to illustrate the scope of the topic in another manner for the audience. Just like some individuals have different learning styles, using a variety of approaches to connect with the audience is a

common method used by speakers. Citing numbers helps to portray a certain level of expertise and research on the topic by the speaker to the audience.

Use of Facts

Facts are a direct way for the speaker to add credibility to their speech. Facts are any common knowledge or irrefutable statements that are known by the general public. Often these aspects of a speech are cited as "common knowledge" as a means to connect the topic on a more general level to the audience as a means of establishing a relatable tone to the speech.

Narratives and Stories

Walter Fisher discusses the idea of narrative paradigm in many of his works, and many of the speeches analyzed used at least one form of story to connect their topic to their audience. "The logic of good reasons maintains that reasoning need not be bound to argumentative prose or be expressed in a clear-cut inferential or implicative structures: Reasoning may be discovered in all sorts of symbolic action—non-discursive as well as discursive, (Fisher, 2005, p. 240).

From a young age we are exposed to stories from our parents, family and friends, and from society as a whole. "The narrative paradigm, then, can be considered a dialectical synthesis of two traditional strands in the history of rhetoric: the argumentative, persuasive theme and the literary, aesthetic theme, " (Fisher, 2005, p. 241). By using stories within a persuasive context, a speaker is using a latent narrative that is prevalent in

society in order to allow the audience to draw a deeper connection and understanding of the speech topic and the persuasive messages within the speech.

Habermas (1987) discusses his ideas for concern for strengthening non-instrumental patterns of reasoning and social rationalization in his works on argumentation and public discourse. All of the speeches examined in this thesis are making an argument about a situation or idea in society, and use aspects of argumentation theory to convey the speaker's stance on the issue. Evidence is a key part to any performance in forensics and evidence is just as important to persuade an individual to believe ones ideas or convictions on a subject.

The Coding Process and Training the Coders

The coding process included the use of a code sheet and code book in order to enhance intercoder reliability. There were two coders; one was the researcher and the other was a current graduate student. Two coders were chosen so the researcher could be more confident in determining the accuracy of the research. Two coders allowed the researcher to assess the degree of agreement or reliability between coders. The additional coder received approximately one hour of training from the researcher and the code book. The code sheet was used with each speech analyzed.

Instrumentation

The code sheet (see Appendix A) includes a list of identifying information regarding the speech including the speech number, the authors name, the title of the speech, the placing of the speech and the coach of the piece, if provided. Once the coders

identify the basic identification information questions individually, the coders will begin looking for more specific information within the speeches by using the created codesheet categories and identifying the information present in each of the speeches. The five categories are topic, structure, implied audience, persona, and supporting information and evidence.

Coders

There were two coders, both of whom are graduate students and one was the researcher for this study. The code sheet (see Appendix A) and code book (see Appendix B) were both used in training sessions. First, the coders worked together and viewed the speeches. Each described how they would process each speech and explained why they chose the answer they did for each category. Each question was gone through and each difference explained by both coders. This process continued until 80% inter-coder reliability is achieved.

Implementing the Coding Process

The code sheet was entered into a Microsoft Excel® document and double checked in order to decrease the potential for data entry errors. Each coder was given a predetermined number of speeches to analyze. The researcher coded 80%, while the other coder coded 20% of the speeches. The speeches were then transferred from their original form to a Microsoft Excel® document allowing each coders response to be documented and compared. The Microsoft Excel® document was used to answer questions regarding

the average number of sources used, citations, number of paragraphs and other structural aspects of the speeches.

Determining Reliability

Prior to embarking on the bulk of the coding, the coders performed a reliability check on 20 percent of final round speeches. This was completed by double coding these speeches. In order to check the level of inter-coder reliability, the coders went through the coded speeches, and, in categories where differences occur, the researchers provided additional examples and justifications for the coding decisions they made in order for the two coders to arrive at a consensus for the proper coding category for each area of discrepancy. The primary coder moved forward with coding the remainder of the sample once coders established reliabilities of at least 80 percent for each category.

Intercoder Reliability Testing

Before the primary coder progressed with completing the coding of the sample, intercoder reliability testing was completed on the first seven speeches in the sample (N=35) to determine if the reliability levels between the two coders was high enough to allow the primary coder to code the rest of the sample group alone. Using the ideas presented by Krippendorff (1980), to ensure that one coder could progress with coding the sample set on their own, a reliability and agreement level of at least eighty percent needed to be achieved between the two coders after coding at least twenty percent of the sample.

The two coders each coded seven of the 35 speeches (20%) to establish percent agreement and reliability between the two coders. The results of this reliability testing yielded a percent agreement of 90.8% (158 out of 174 coded items matched) between the two coders. To test for reliability, a test for Krippendorff's alpha was run, and yielded a result of (0.813). Due to this result, the primary coder decided to calculate Cohen's Kappa to attempt to check for any possible testing errors, and the calculated result was (0.814). Due to both of these results, the coders decided to use a third measure to check for reliability, Scott's Pi, and yielded a result of (0.813). Since the coders did code a significant amount of the sample (7 of 35, 20%), and the percent agreement value resulting from the coder testing was above eighty percent (90.2%), the resulting test values for Krippendorff's alpha, the measure chosen for this thesis, can be attributed to the similar responses between the two coders during the test coding process. The primary coder continued to code the rest of the sample set due to the results above, and the results of the coding process begin below.

Analyzing the Results

Data for interpretation was collected from each speech based upon how many times each aspect was present in each speech, and which persuasive structure was used. The data was then placed into an Excel file to determine the frequency of certain aspects of persuasion occurring with each structure, and with each speech. In chapter four I will present the findings of the study for each decade and for the sample set overall.

Limitations of Method Application

Content analysis may be the best fit for these artifacts for analysis, but some limitations still exist in this method application. Content analysis is a purely descriptive method. It describes what is there, but may not reveal the underlying motives for the observed pattern ('what' but not 'why'). Content analysis can only draw on what is available within the text, and can only make observations off of the available material. “One challenge of this type of analysis is failing to develop a complete understanding of the context, thus failing to identify key categories. This can result in finding that do not accurately represent the data” (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005, p. 128). This means we cannot draw claims of how the speeches reached the final round off of delivery or comparison of other topics, just off what exists within the texts of the speeches. The analysis is also limited by availability of material. Observed trends in media/society may not be an accurate reflection of reality; for example, catastrophic events receive more coverage than less dramatic occurrences. Similarly, the content of the speeches analyzed and the structures used only reflect the final round speeches and the topics analyzed by those speeches, which may not reflect the reality of the time period based off of media coverage.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

In order to distinguish any differences in theme prevalence between the final rounds of each decade, the coders use a present/absent indication of themes (Topic, Speech Structure, Implied Audience, Persona, and Supporting Information/Evidence), as well as a frequency count to determine how themes and the prevalence of certain themes shifted from decade to decade. Each category had multiple subcategories for thorough analysis. This chapter will compare each year directly to the other years analyzed by going section by section through the themes coded in order to allow any shifts to be directly compared to other decades. This not only allows for more direct comparisons between decades, but also for more direct comparisons of the speeches within each decade. It should be noted that the 1970 contest is the only contest in the sample that contains a separated men's and women's division, which in also noted in the tables and the coding results.

Topic Area

The first area in the coding process was the topic area of the speech. The coding method for this particular aspect of the speeches was aimed at addressing how the speaker framed their topic throughout their speech. Meaning, how many times the topic is directly, or indirectly referenced in the speech. While the topic may be implied by the title of the speech or the sources used, direct statements or indirect references to the topic within the speech can be used as a persuasive mechanism.

1970

The 1970 contest was the only decade in the sample that contained a separate men's division, and a separate women's division, which led to twelve speeches being analyzed from this decade. Of the twelve speeches, five dealt with issues in the medical field, three dealt with issues of prejudice in our culture, three dealt with the government and governmental policies, and one dealt with education. Having nearly half the speeches in the final rounds address some aspect of the medical field allowed researchers to see the large amount of important placed on these issues over other concerns presented in the contest, and this become more apparent once investigation of topic references occurred.

As the table below indicates, all twelve speeches contained direct references to the topic area being addressed by the speaker, and eleven of twelve speeches contained indirect references to the topic area by the speaker. Half of the speeches had more direct references, while half of the speeches had more indirect references. The key noticeable difference in the 1970's sample is the number of references made by speakers. The men's division speeches contained between three to five references to the topic (direct or indirect), while the women's division contained between six and sixteen references to the topic (direct or indirect). All of the speeches in the women's division also contained more indirect references to the topic area, while all the men's division speeches contained more direct references to the topic area. These two findings were the noticeable distinctions between the two divisions represented in this decade of the sample, as the researchers could not compare the success of the speeches across the divisions based upon reference type of quantity of references. There was no noticeable correlation between the number of references used, or topic area choice and the resulting placing of the speech.

1980

The 1980 competition was the second contest coded during the research of the IOA contest. This is the first contest in the sample where there was no separate men's and women's divisions, and all of the contestants competed against one another in one open division. This is also the first contest coded by the primary coder alone as the intercoder reliability scores confirmed consistency of coding scores between the two coders.

Six speeches we analyzed from this decade. Of the six speeches, three dealt with medical topics, two dealt with the government, and one dealt with issues in the workplace. Half of the speeches in the final round dealt with issues in the medical field, causing the researchers to draw, just like in the 1970 contest, that a large amount of importance was placed on this issues, in comparison to the importance placed on other areas of concern presented at the contest.

As the table below indicates, all six speeches contained direct references to the topic area being addressed by the speaker, and five of the six speeches contained indirect references to the topic area by the speaker. All of the speeches had more direct references then indirect references. The key noticeable difference from the 1970's sample is the number of references made by speakers. All of the speeches contained between five to seven direct references, and the range of indirect references was between zero and three. The average number of direct references of the speeches in the 1980 contest was smaller than the number in the 1970 contest (6.58 to 6.33), and the average number of indirect references was smaller as well (4.00 to 1.33). There was no noticeable correlation

between the number of references used, or topic area choice and the resulting placing of the speech.

1990

The third contest coded for this thesis was the 1990 IOA contest. Six speeches we analyzed from this decade. Of the six speeches, two dealt with governmental issues, two dealt with economic issues, one dealt with workplace issues, and one dealt with issues in the medical field. Unlike the 1970 and 1980 contests this decade did not have a clear topic area dominate the others in the final round, and was the most balanced decade analyzed to this point.

As the table below indicates, all six speeches contained direct references to the topic area being addressed by the speaker, and five of the six speeches contained indirect references to the topic area by the speaker. All of the speeches had more direct references then indirect references. The key noticeable difference from the 1970 and 1980 samples are the number of references made by speakers. All of the speeches contained between six to eight direct references, and the range of indirect references was between zero and two. The average number of direct references of the speeches in the 1990 contest was larger than the number in the 1970 and 1980 contests (6.58 to 6.33 to 7.00), and the average number of indirect references was smaller (4.00 to 1.33 to 1.17). There was no noticeable correlation between the number of references used, or topic area choice and the resulting placing of the speech.

2000

The fourth contest coded for this thesis is the 2000 IOA contest. Of the six speeches, three dealt with concerns in the legal field, one dealt with workplace concerns, one dealt with issues concerning travel, and one dealt with issues in the education system. Like the 1970 and 1980 contests this decade had a clear topic area dominate the others in the final round (legal).

As the table below indicates, all six speeches contained direct references to the topic area being addressed by the speaker, and five of the six speeches contained indirect references to the topic area by the speaker. All of the speeches had more direct references then indirect references. The key noticeable difference from the previous decade samples is the number of references made by speakers. All of the speeches contained between four to eight direct references, and the range of indirect references was between zero and four. The average number of direct references of the speeches in the 2000 contest was larger than the number in the 1970 and 1980 contests, but smaller than the 1990 contest (6.58 to 6.33 to 7.00 to 6.67), and the average number of indirect references was smaller then the 1970 contest, but higher then the 1980 and 1990 contests (4.00 to 1.33 to 1.17 to 1.5). There was no noticeable correlation between the number of references used, or topic area choice and the resulting placing of the speech.

2010

The 2010 contest was the last contest coded for the thesis. Unlike the previous contests, not all the speeches were present in *Winning Orations* (the fifth place speech was missing). Of the five speeches, three dealt with governmental concerns, one dealt

with the medical field, and one dealt with issues in the education system. Like the 1970, 1980 and 2000 contests, this decade had a clear topic area dominate the others in the final round (government).

As the table below indicates, all five speeches coded contained direct references to the topic area being addressed by the speaker, but unlike previous contests where the majority of speeches contained indirect references to the topic area, only one speech had indirect references. As a result, all of the speeches had more direct references then indirect references. The key noticeable differences from the previous decade samples are the number of references made by speakers. All of the speeches contained between six to ten direct references, and the range of indirect references was between zero and two. The average number of direct references of the speeches in the 2010 contest was larger than the number in the previous contests (6.58 to 6.33 to 7.00 to 6.67 to 7.6), and the average number of indirect references was smaller then the previous contests (4.00 to 1.33 to 1.17 to 1.5 to 0.20). There was no noticeable correlation between the number of references used, or topic area choice and the resulting placing of the speech.

Table 1

Topic Shifts Present in the Sample

Decade	Topic Areas	Direct References	Total # of Direct References	Indirect References	Total # of Indirect References
1970	Workplace - 1 Prejudice - 3 Government - 2 Medical – 5 Education - 1	Present in all 12 speeches	44	Present in 11 of the 12 speeches	48
1980	Workplace – 1 Medical – 3 Government - 2	Present in all 6 speeches	38	Present in 5 of 6 speeches	8
1990	Workplace – 1 Government – 2 Medical – 1 Economy - 2	Present in all 6 speeches	41	Present in 5 of 6 speeches	7
2000	Workplace – 1 Travel – 1 Education – 1 Legal – 3	Present in all 6 speeches	40	Present in 5 of 6 speeches	9
2010	Medical – 1 Education – 1 Government - 3	Present in all 5 attainable speeches	38	Present in 1 of 5 attainable speeches	2
Totals	Workplace – 4 Travel – 1 Legal – 3 Prejudice – 3 Medical – 10 Government – 9 Education - 3	Present in all 35 attainable speeches		Present in 27 of 35 attainable speeches	

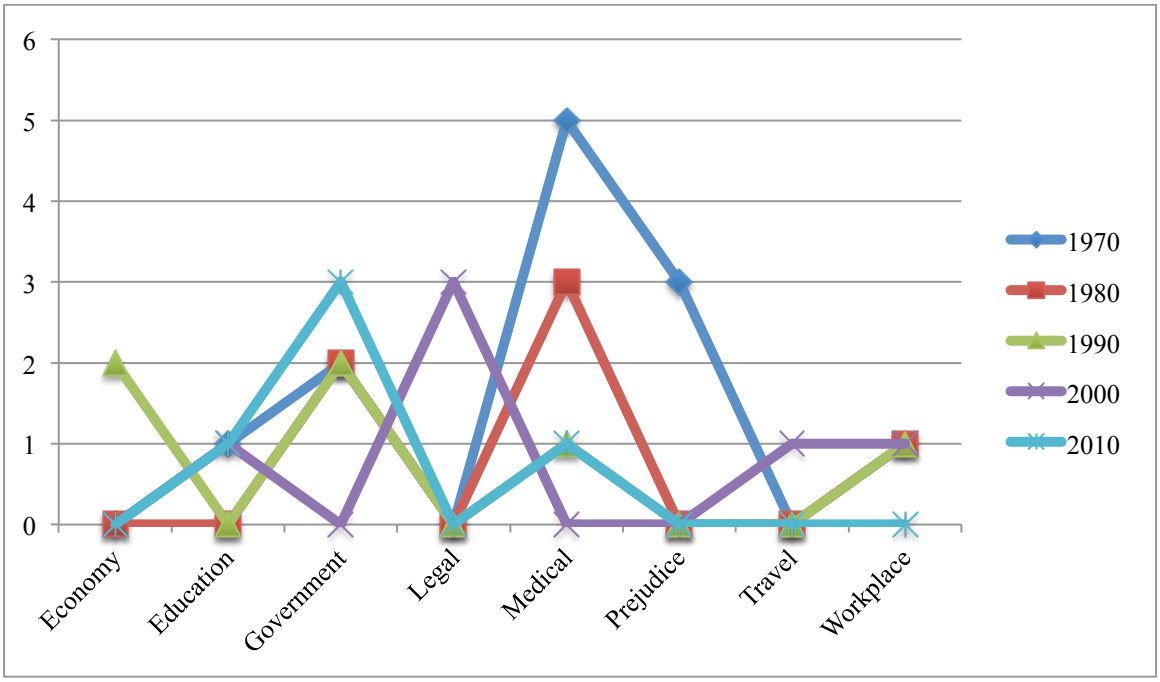

Figure 1. Topic Shifts Present in the Sample.

Structure

Once topic area was identified the coding shifted to focusing on how the speeches were structured for the contest. The focus of this section of the coding process was to investigate if there was a prevalence of any particular persuasive structure in the contest, and to see if the structural choice could have played a role in the placement of the speech. The coders looked for the existence of structures, as well as the possibility of any combinations of structures within the speeches.

1970

The results indicated in the table below some favoring of persuasive structure types over others in the competition occurring in 1970. In the men's division two speakers used the problem-cause-solution structure, one used the Monroe's motivated sequence structure, four used the jeremiad structure, and the first place speaker used aspects of both the problem-cause-solution and jeremiad structures in his speech. The women's division had three speakers use the problem-cause-solution structure, four use the Monroe's motivated sequence structure, and three use the jeremiad structure, while three of the six speakers used a combination of at least two structures.

The most common structure choice in the men's division was the jeremiad structure, which was used by the top three speakers in the division, while in the women's division the most common structure used was the Monroe's motivated sequence structure, which was used by the top three speakers. In both divisions the winning speaker used a combination of at least two structures in their speech, but the differences between the two divisions is the most clearly articulated by the favored structure, jeremiad for the men's division, and Monroe's motivated sequence for the women's division, with both of these structures being used by over half the speakers in their respective divisions, and all three of the top speakers in each division using the most prevalent structure.

1980

The use of certain persuasive structures in the 1980 contest became very apparent for the primary coder after the initial reading of the speeches. While the 1970 contest had a fairly wide array of structures used, the 1980 contest had a much smaller variety of

structures used. This narrowed variety of structures used is represented in the table below. Of the six speakers five used the Monroe's motivated sequence structure and one used the jeremiad structure. Unlike the 1970 contest, no speaker used multiple structural choices to compose their speech.

The unique difference between this contest and the contest in 1970 was a clear distinction in final round placing and structure usage. The one speaker in the final round that did not use Monroe's Motivated Sequence placed last in the final, while the five speakers using that structure took the top five spots. While this could have been due to delivery or content, since all these speeches made it to the final round, structural choice could have played a significant role in the final placing of the speeches for this particular contest.

1990

Persuasive structure use in the 1990 contest showed some shifts in structure use from the 1980 contest. While the 1980 contest had a clear favoring of the Monroe's Motivated Sequence structure the 1990 contest had four students use the Problem-Cause Solution structure and only two students use the Monroe's Motivated sequence structure. The similarity between the 1980 and 1990 contest existed in that no speakers from either contest used multiple persuasive structures for their speeches. With the variety of structures used in the 1990 contest, and no noticeable pattern of structure use and placing, researchers concluded that for the 1990 contest structure did not have an impact on final placing.

2000

Structural use in the 2000 contest showed very little shift in structural use from the previous decade in comparison to the shifts noticed from the first two contests coded. For the 2000 contest three speakers used the Problem-Cause-Solution structure, two used the Monroe's Motivated Sequence structure, and one used the Jeremiad structure. In a similar fashion to the 1980 and 1990 contests, no speakers used multiple persuasive structures in their speeches. Due to the larger variety of structures used, and no noticeable pattern between structure usage and final placing, researchers concluded that structure usage did not play a key role in final placing for this contest.

2010

The structural elements used in this contest followed a similar trend to the structures used in the 1990 and 2000 contests with three persuasive structures present. Of the five available speeches three used the Problem-Cause-Solution structure, one used the Monroe's Motivated Sequence structure, and one used the Jeremiad structure. Once again no speaker used multiple persuasive structures for their speech. Similar to the 1980 contest however, with over half of the available speeches in the final round using the Problem-Cause-Solution structure, researchers concluded that structural choice for the 2010 contest played some role in impacting final placing.

Table 2

Structure Shifts Present in the Sample

Decade	Problem-Cause-Solution	Monroe's Motivated Sequence	Jeremiad	Other	Combination
1970	5 (0.417)	5 (0.417)	7 (0.583)	0 (0.000)	4 (0.333)
1980	0 (0.000)	5 (0.833)	1 (0.167)	0 (0.000)	0 (0.000)
1990	4 (0.667)	2 (0.333)	0 (0.000)	0 (0.000)	0 (0.000)
2000	3 (0.500)	2 (0.333)	1 (0.167)	0 (0.000)	0 (0.000)
2010	3 (0.600)	1 (0.200)	1 (0.200)	0 (0.000)	0 (0.000)
Total Number	15 (0.429)	15 (0.429)	10 (0.286)	0 (0.000)	4 (0.114)

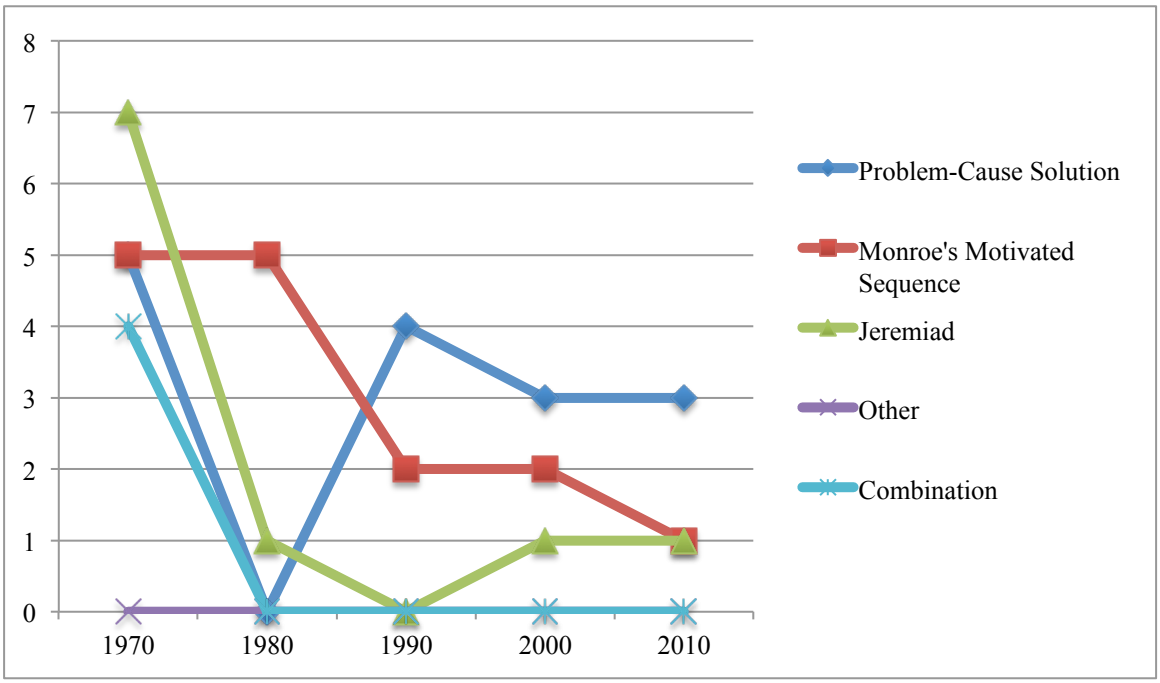

Figure 2. Structure Shifts Present in the Sample.

Implied Audience

The third area coded within the speeches by the coders was the theme of implied audience. An implied audience is an imaginary audience determined by an auditor or reader as the text's constructed audience. The implied audience is not the actual audience,

but the one that can be inferred by reading or analyzing the text. The coders identified if the message of the speech is geared towards a specific aspect of our society (particular), and identified who they believed that specific audience to be. Unlike a particular audience, a general audience approach is meant to address all possible listeners/readers of a speech. If the coders felt that the speaker was gearing towards a general audience, they identified the implied audience as general.

1970

As indicated in the table below, the differences in how audiences are addressed in the speeches are different between the men's and women's divisions. While every speech in the 1970 competition had United States citizens as the general audience they were speaking to with their speeches, as all of the topics being addressed pertained to the public as a whole, the differences in the speeches came in how the speakers addressed, or did not address particular audiences in their speeches. Nine of the twelve speeches (75%) had at least one particular audience they were speaking to with their speech, with four speakers referencing one particular audience, three speakers referencing two particular audiences, and two speakers referencing three particular audiences in their speech.

The noticeable difference between the two divisions existed in the prevalence of general references versus particular references. In the men's division only one speaker had more general audience references (the 5th place speaker) while every speaker had more general references compared to the number of particular references in the women's division. Not only did all of the speeches in the women's division have more general references compared to particular references, but all of the speeches in the women's

division had more total general references compared to any speech in the men's division except the 5th place speaker in the men's division (a maximum of three general references versus a range of three to five general references in the women's division).

The most interesting difference between the two divisions was the particular audiences referenced. While all twelve speeches referenced U.S. Citizens as a general audience, the particular audiences addressed varied greatly between the two divisions. The women's division addressed a total of five different particular audiences: doctors, nurses, teachers, educators, and E.M.T personnel. The men's division addressed seven different particular audiences, none of which were addressed in the women's division. The particular audiences addressed by the men's division were; government officials, U.S. employers, black citizens, white citizens, voters, the forensic community, and NASA officials. This distinction between divisions lead researcher to conclude that audience reference in the 1970 contest may not have had a large impact on final placing, but was distinctly different between the two divisions.

1980

The distinctions between the 1970 contest and the 1980 contest continued to become more apparent once coding for implied audiences started on the speeches for the 1980 contest. As indicated in the table below, there were no noticable differences in how audiences are addressed in the speeches Similar to every speech in the 1970 competition, all speeches in the 1980 had United States citizens as the one or one of the general audience(s) they were speaking to with their speeches, as all of the topics being addressed pertained to the public as a whole. The differences in the speeches in the 1980 from the

1970 contest came in how the speakers addressed particular audiences in their speeches. All six of the speeches (100%) had at least one particular audience they were speaking to with their speech, with three speakers referencing one particular audience and three speakers referencing two particular audiences in their speech.

The difference between the six speeches existed in the prevalence of general and particular references. Three of the six speeches (50%) had two particular audiences, while three of the six speeches (50%) had one. In regards to general audiences two speeches addressed two general audiences (33%), while four of the six addressed only one general audience (67%). In comparison to the 1970 contest the 1980 had the same average number of particular audiences addressed per speech (1.5 to 1.5), and a lower average number of general audiences addressed (3 to 1.33).

The most interesting difference between the 1970 and 1980 contest was the particular audiences referenced and the general audience(s) referenced. The 1980 contest had twice the number of particular audiences and general audiences addressed as the number that was addressed in the 1970 contest. The 1980 contest had ten particular audiences references and two general audiences referenced. The particular audiences referenced were: hospice employees, medical professionals, parents, expecting parents, employers, employees, the forensics community, the U.S. military, and congressmen. The general audiences referenced were: U.S. citizens and voters. While the difference in particular and general audience references between the 1970 and 1980 contest is clear, researchers concluded that the audiences referenced, and the number of references for each audience type did not have a noticeable impact on final placing.

1990

The manner in which audiences were addressed in the 1990 had a sharp shift from the 1970 and 1980 contests, both in terms of audiences addressed, and the number of audiences addressed. As indicated in the table below, there were no noticeable differences in how audiences are addressed in the speeches of this contest. Similar to every speech in the 1970 and 1980 competitions, the majority of the speeches in the 1990 competition (five of the six speeches) had United States citizens as the one or one of the general audience(s) they were speaking to with their speeches, as all of the topics being addressed pertained to the public as a whole. The differences in the speeches in the 1990 from the previous contests came in how the speakers addressed particular audiences in their speeches. All six of the speeches (100%) had at least one particular audience they were speaking to with their speech, with one speakers referencing one particular audience, three speakers referencing two particular audiences, one referencing three particular audiences, and one referencing four particular audiences in their speech.

The difference between the six speeches existed in the prevalence of general and particular references. One speech (16.7%) had one particular audience referenced, three speeches (44.1%) referenced two particular audiences, one speech (16.7%) referenced three particular audiences, and one speech (16.7%) referenced four particular audiences. In regards to general audiences two speeches addressed one general audiences (33%), while four of the six addressed two general audience (67%). In comparison to the 1970 and 1980 contests the 1990 contest had a higher average numbers of particular audiences addressed per speech (1.5 to 1.5 to 2.33), and a lower number of general audiences

addressed compared to 1970 but a larger number in comparison to 1980 (3 to 1.33 to 1.67).

The interesting difference between the 1970, 1980, and 1990 contests was the particular audiences referenced and the general audience(s) referenced. The 1990 contest had more particular audiences and general audiences addressed compared to the number that were addressed in the 1970 and 1980 contests. The 1990 contest had twelve particular audiences references and three general audiences referenced. The particular audiences referenced were: employers, recycling citizens, the government, financial planners, government officials, the forensic community, the U.S. military, educators, nurses, doctors, patients, and family members of patients. The general audiences referenced were: U.S. workers, U.S. citizens, and voters. While the difference in particular and general audience references between the 1970, 1980, and 1990 contests are clear, researchers concluded that the audiences referenced, and the number of references for each audience type did not have a noticeable impact on final placing.

2000

Audiences in the 2000 continued the pattern noticed in the 1990 contest of the preference of particular audiences over general audiences, and also contained more particular audiences than any previously investigated decade. The manner in which audiences were addressed in the 2000 contest had a sharp shift from the 1970, 1980, and 1990 contests, both in terms of audiences addressed, and the number of audiences addressed. Similar to every speech in the previous competitions, the majority of the speeches in the 2000 competition (five of the six speeches) had United States citizens as

the general audience they were speaking to with their speeches, as all of the topics being addressed pertained to the public as a whole. The difference in the speeches in the 2000 from the previous contests came in how the speakers addressed particular audiences in their speeches. All six of the speeches (100%) had at least one particular audience they were speaking to with their speech, with one speakers referencing two particular audience, four speakers referencing three particular audiences, and one referencing four particular audiences in their speech.

The difference between the six speeches existed in the prevalence of general and particular references. One speech (16.7%) had two particular audience referenced, four speeches (66.7%) referenced three particular audiences, and one speech (16.7%) referenced four particular audiences. In regards to general audiences five speeches addressed one general audience (83.3%), while one addressed no general audiences (16.7%). In comparison to the previous contests, the 2000 contest had a higher average numbers of particular audiences addressed per speech (1.5 to 1.5 to 2.33 to 3), and a lower number of general audiences referenced (3 to 1.33 to 1.67 to 0.83).

The interesting difference between the 1970, 1980, 1990, and 2000 contests was the particular audiences referenced and the general audience(s) referenced. The 2000 contest had more particular audiences addressed compared to the number that were addressed in the 1970, 1980, and 1990 contests, and the same general audience reference structure as the 1970 contest. The 2000 contest had thirteen particular audiences references and one general audiences referenced. The particular audiences referenced were: employers, employees, government officials, hotel owners, hotel employees, the forensic community, lawyers, judges, law enforcement members, educators, students,

parents, and minority citizens. The general audience referenced was: U.S. citizens. While the difference in particular and general audience references between the 1970, 1980, 1990, and 2000 contests are clear, researchers concluded that the audiences referenced, and the number of references for each audience type did not have a noticeable impact on final placing.

2010

Audience connection and identification in the 2010 contest mirrored that of the 2000 contest. Audiences in the 2010 continued the pattern noticed in the 2000 contest of the preference of particular audiences over general audiences. Similar to every speech in the previous competitions, all of the speeches in the 2010 competition had United States citizens as the general audience they were speaking to with their speeches, as all of the topics being addressed pertained to the public as a whole. The difference in the speeches in the 2010 from the previous contests came in how the speakers addressed particular audiences in their speeches. All five coded speeches (100%) had at least one particular audience they were speaking to with their speech, with one speakers referencing one particular audience, and four referencing two particular audiences in their speech.

The difference between the five coded speeches existed in the prevalence of general and particular references. One speech (20%) had one particular audience referenced, and four speeches (80%) referenced two particular audiences. In regards to general audiences all five speeches addressed one general audience (100%). In comparison to the previous contests, the 2010 contest had the middle average number of

particular audiences addressed per speech (1.5 to 1.5 to 2.33 to 3 to 1.8), and the second smallest number of general audiences referenced (3 to 1.33 to 1.67 to 0.83 to 1).

The interesting difference between the previous contests and the 2010 contest was the particular audiences referenced and the general audience referenced. The 2010 contest had six particular audiences references and one general audiences referenced. The particular audiences referenced were: government officials, parents of students, school officials, hospital employees, aide workers, and voters. The general audience referenced was: U.S. citizens. While the difference in particular and general audience references between the 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010 contests are clear, researchers concluded that the audiences referenced, and the number of references for each audience type did not have a noticeable impact on final placing.

Table 3

Referenced Audience Shifts in the Sample

Decade	Particular Audiences	Particular Audiences	Total Particular References	General Audience	General Audiences	Total General References
1970	Black Citizens - 2 Doctors/Nurses - 1 Educators/Teachers - 2 E.M.T. Personnel - 1 Forensic Community - 1 Government Officials - 3 NASA Officials - 1 U.S. Employers - 1 White Citizens - 1	At least 1 referenced in 11 of 12 speeches	18	At least 1 referenced in all 12 speeches	U.S. Citizens - 12	36
1980	Congressmen - 1 Employees - 1 Employers - 1 Forensics Community - 1	At least 1 referenced in all 6 speeches	9	At least 1 referenced in all 6 speeches	U.S. Citizens – 6 Voters - 2	8

Table 3

Referenced Audience Shifts in the Sample (Continued)

	Hospice Employees - 1 Medical Professionals – 2 Parents/Expecting Parents - 1					
1990	Doctors/Nurses – 1 Educators - 1 Employers - 1 Family Members - 1 Financial Planners - 1 Forensic Community - 1 Government - 1 Government Officials - 4 Patients - 1 Recycling Citizens – 1 U.S. Military - 1	At least 1 referenced in all 6 speeches	14	At least 1 referenced in 6 of 6 speeches	U.S. Citizens - 5 U.S. Workers – 1 Voters - 3	10
2000	Educators - 1 Employees - 1 Employers - 1 Forensic Community - 1 Government Officials - 5 Hotel Employees - 1 Hotel Owners - 1 Lawyers -1 Law Enforcement - 2 Minority Citizens - 1 Students - 1 Parents - 1	At least 1 referenced in all 6 speeches	18	At least 1 referenced in 5 of 6 speeches	U.S. Citizens - 5	5

Table 3

Referenced Audience Shifts in the Sample (Continued)

2010	Aide Workers -1 Government Officials - 4 Hospital Employees - 1 Parents - 1 School Officials - 1 Voters - 1	At least 1 referenced in all 5 available speeches	9	At least 1 referenced in all 5 available speeches	U.S. Citizens - 5	5
Totals	Aide Workers – 1 Black Citizens – 2 Congressmen – 1 Doctors/Nurses – 2 Educators – 4 Employees -2 Employers – 3 E.M.T. Personnel – 1 Family Members – 1 Financial Planners – 1 Forensics Community – 4 Government – 1 Government Officials – 16 Hospice Employees – 1 Hospital Employees – 1 Hotel Employees - 1 Hotel Owners - 1 Lawyers -1 Law Enforcement - 2 Medical Professionals – 2 Minority Citizens – 1 NASA Officials - 1 Students - 1 Parents – 4 Patients – 1 Recycling Citizens – 1	At least 1 referenced in 34 of 35 available speeches	68	At least 1 referenced in 34 of 35 available speeches	U.S. Citizens – 33 U.S. Workers – 1 Voters - 5	64

Table 3

Referenced Audience Shifts in the Sample (Continued)

	School Officials – 1 U.S. Employers – 1 U.S. Military – 1 Voters – 1 White Citizens – 1					

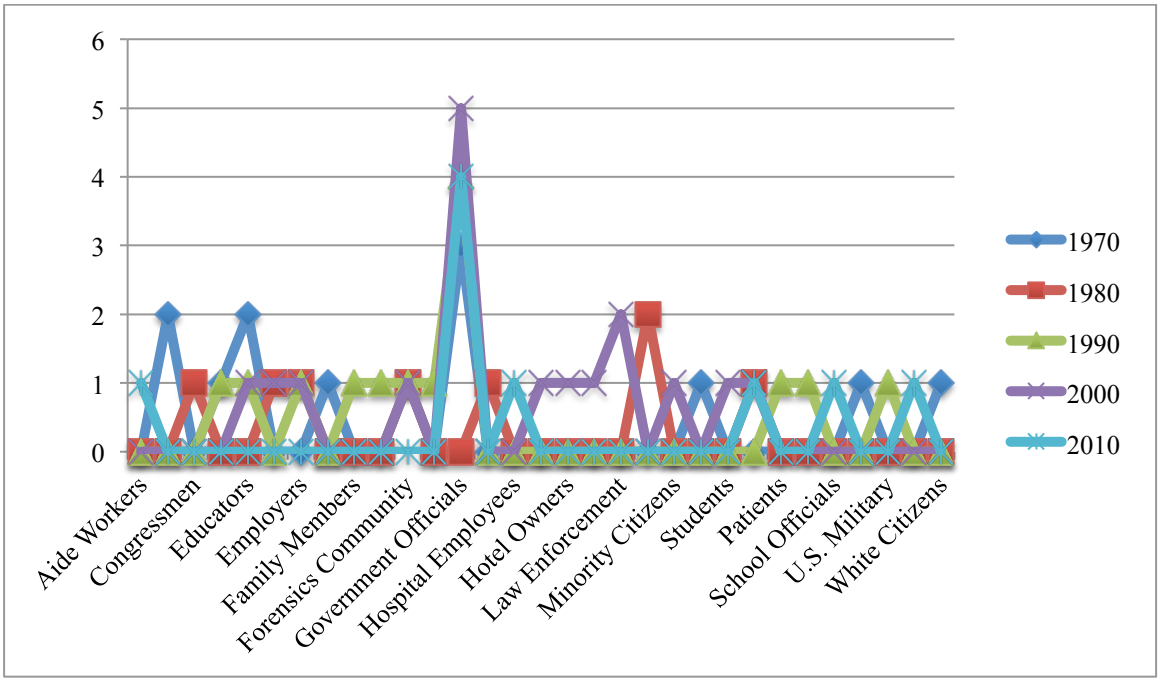

Figure 3. Referenced Specific Audience Shifts in the Sample.

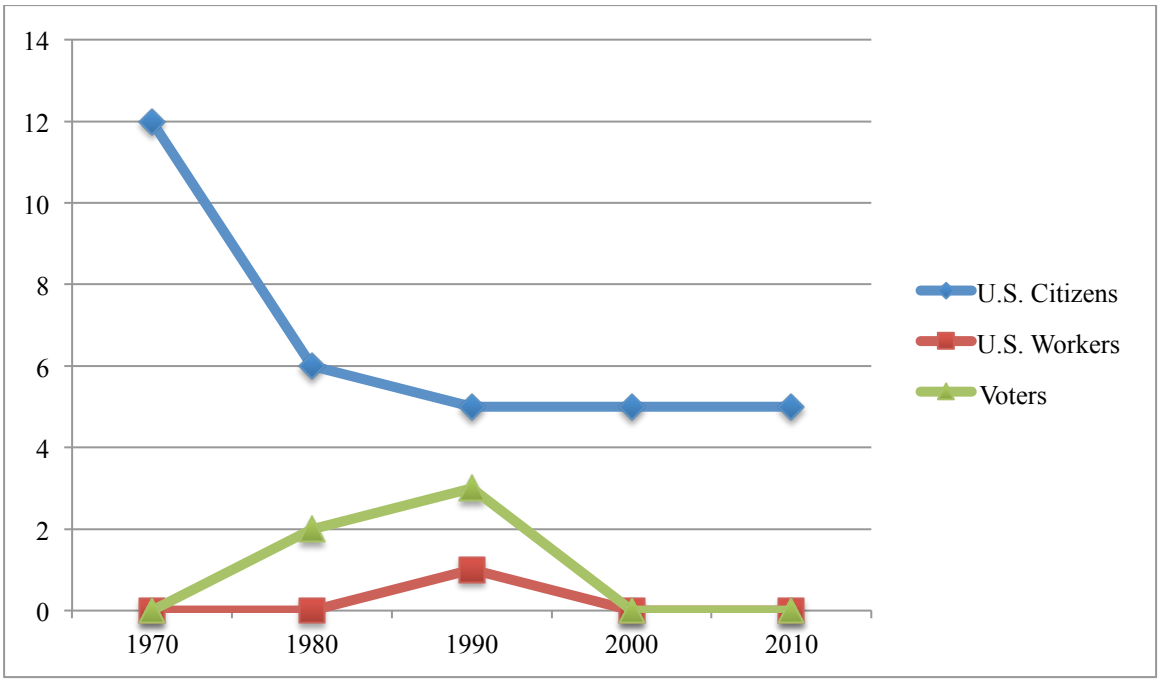

Figure 4. Referenced General Audience Shifts in the Sample.

Persona

Creation of a persona within a speech was the next aspect of the persuasive speeches the coders looked for in the sample set. The coders looked for different persona types within the speeches and coded how many times these persona aspects were present within the speeches. The coders also looked at the possibility of a speaker using multiple persona types within the speech. If multiple personas were used, the coders identified which were used, and which was the most commonly used in each speech.

1970

The table below once again helps to illustrate the differences noticed between the speeches given in the two separate divisions. Of the twelve speeches, eight of them used multiple personas within the speech, with five of the six in the men's division (only the

third place speaker did not), and half of the women's division (the first, fourth, and sixth place speakers did not) using multiple personas. The unique findings from this section of coding were what aspects of persona were rarely used. Not a single speaker used the practiced persona, while only the second and fourth place men's speakers used the inclusive persona. Half of the speakers, three men and three women, used the authentic persona. All but two speakers (the first and fourth place women's speakers) used the second persona, and only four speakers (the first, second, fifth, and sixth place men's speakers) used the third persona. While no woman used the third persona, the first and third place women's speakers were the only speakers to use an authoritative persona in their speeches. There appeared to be no correlation between persona use and speech placing for the 1970 competition in either the men's or women's division or between the men's and women's divisions.

1980

The creation of a persona within a speech has always been important, and a clear persona is needed for a successful connection to the audience. The table below once again helps to illustrate the differences noticed between the speeches. All six speeches coded for this contest used multiple personas within the speech. The unique findings from this section of coding were what aspects of persona were rarely used for this contest. Not a single speaker used the practiced persona, while only the third place speaker used the inclusive persona, and only the fourth place speaker used an authoritative persona. Half of the speakers used the authentic persona and every speaker used the second persona and

the third personas. There appeared to be no correlation between persona use and speech placing for the 1980 competition.

1990

Persona creation in the 1990 contest almost mirrored the persona structures used in the 1980 contest. The table below illustrates the differences noticed between the speeches given. All six speeches coded for this contest used multiple personas within the speech. Again, the unique findings from this section of coding were what aspects of persona were rarely used for this contest. Not a single speaker used the practiced persona, while only the first and third place speakers used the inclusive persona, and the fifth and sixth place speakers used an authoritative persona. Only the second place speaker used the authentic persona and every speaker used the second persona and all but the second place speaker used the third persona. There appeared to be no correlation between persona use and speech placing for the 1990 competition.

2000

Creations of a relatable persona were apparent in all previously coded speeches, but the contest in 2000 showed a drastic shift in persona creation from the previously coded contests. The table below illustrates the differences noticed between the speeches given. All six speeches coded for this contest used multiple personas within the speech. Again, the unique findings from this section of coding were what aspects of persona were rarely used for this contest. Not a single speaker used the practiced persona, while only the third and sixth place speakers did not use the inclusive persona (a distinct difference

from previous contests), and only the second and fourth place speakers did not use an authoritative persona. All the speakers besides the first and fourth place speakers used the authentic persona and every speaker used the second persona and half of the speakers (the first, second, and sixth place speakers) used the third persona. There appeared to be no correlation between persona use and speech placing for the 2000 competition.

2010

Persona in the 2010 showed a distinct shift in persona creation and use from the previously coded contests. The table below illustrates the differences noticed between the speeches given. All five speeches coded for this contest used multiple personas within the speech. Again, the unique findings from this section of coding were what aspects of persona were rarely used for this contest. Two of the five speakers used the practiced persona, while every speaker used the inclusive persona (a clear difference from previous contests), and only the fourth place speaker used an authoritative persona. Only the first and sixth place speakers used the authentic persona and every speaker except for the third and fourth place speakers used the second persona and third personas in their speeches. There appeared to be no correlation between persona use and speech placing for the 2010 competition.

Table 4

Persona Shifts Present in the Sample

Decade	Inclusive	Practiced	Authentic	2nd Persona	3rd Persona	Other	Combination
1970	2 (0.167)	0 (0.000)	6 (0.500)	10 (0.833)	4 (0.333)	2 (0.167)	8 (0.667)
1980	1 (0.167)	0 (0.000)	3 (0.500)	6 (1.000)	6 (1.000)	1 (0.167)	6 (1.000)
1990	2 (0.333)	0 (0.000)	1 (0.167)	6 (1.000)	5 (0.833)	2 (0.333)	6 (1.000)
2000	4 (0.667)	0 (0.000)	4 (0.667)	6 (1.000)	3 (0.500)	4 (0.667)	6 (1.000)
2010	5 (1.000)	2 (0.400)	3 (0.600)	3 (0.600)	3 (0.600)	1 (0.200)	5 (1.000)
Total Number	14 (0.400)	2 (0.057)	17 (0.486)	31 (0.886)	21 (0.600)	10 (0.286)	31 (0.886)

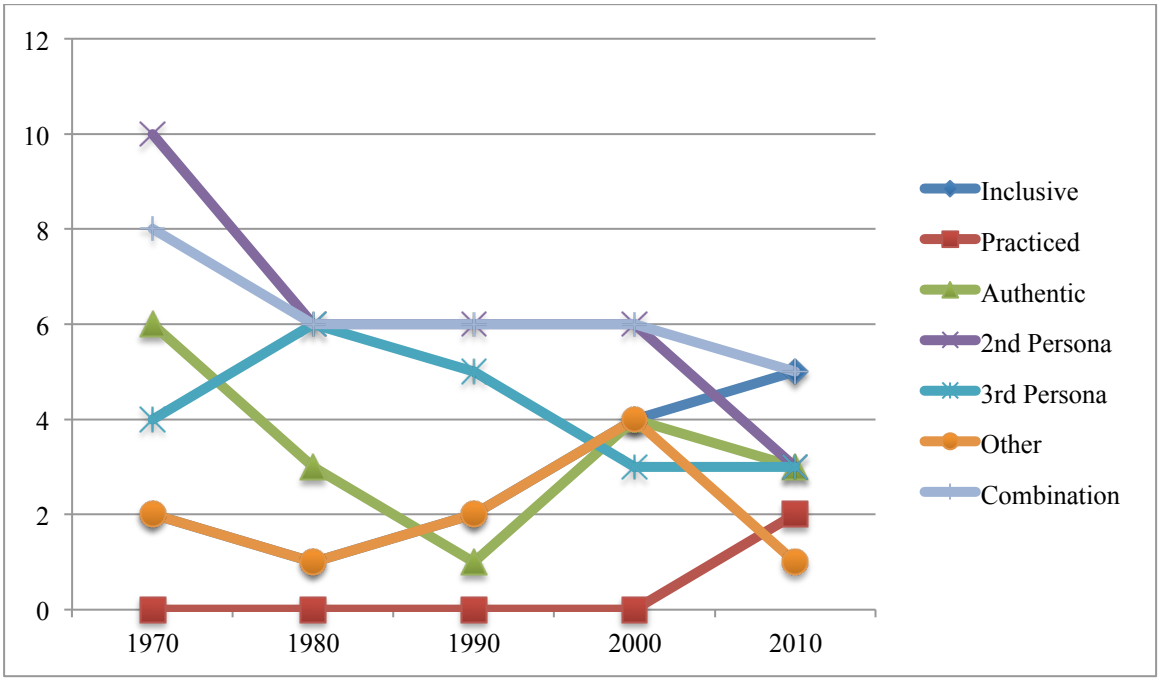

Figure 5. Persona Shifts Present in the Sample.

Supporting Information/Evidence

The last theme area coded for the sample set was the use of supporting information and evidence by the speakers in the speeches. As citations are stressed in the modern day classroom as a means to add credibility to a speech, the coders looked for different types of supporting information and evidence within the speeches, and coded for presence and frequency accordingly. Coders also identified and fallacies of reasoning present in the sample speeches.

1970

The manner in which the speakers used sources and evidence to support their claims in their speeches was not significantly different between the two divisions. Eleven of the twelve speakers cited sources in their speeches to support their arguments (only the fifth place men's speaker did not), and the range of sources used in both divisions ranged from two sources cited, to six sources cited. The similarity here between the two divisions was that the top three speakers in both divisions all cited six sources in their speeches.

The two categories where the largest differences appeared were in the examples and analogies categories. Only five of the twelve speakers used examples in their speeches, and only three of the twelve speakers used analogies in their speeches. While less then half of the speakers used these two supporting categories, the speakers used no more then two f either in their speeches. The unique difference in the speeches, that appeared to not have an impact of final placing was the presence of fallacies in speeches.

The third and fifth place men's speeches and the first, second, and third place women's speeches contained fallacies. Both of the men's speeches containing fallacies contain the fallacy of reasoning, while all three women's speeches containing fallacies contained the slippery slope fallacy, and the second and third place women's speeches contained the bandwagon fallacy. While all of the fallacies present in these speeches only existed once per fallacy in each speech, the presence of fallacies in almost half of the final round speeches raises concern to the legitimacy of the arguments presented by the speakers in the text, as well as the accuracy and legitimacy of the cited sources and supporting evidence used by the speakers. While there are some noticeable difference between the use of sources and supporting evidence in the investigated speeches, it appears that the manner in which sources were used, and the presence of fallacies did not have an impact on final placing.

1980

The last category coded for the 1980 contest was the use of supporting information and evidence. A clear distinction noticed immediately between the 1980 contest and the 1970 contest was the number of cited sources and texts. In 1970 the range of sources was zero to six, with an average source use per speech of (4.33). This is much smaller compared to source citation in the 1980 contest where the range of cited sources was from four to ten, and the average source citation count per speech was (8.17), or nearly double the number from 1970.

When coding the rest of the subcategories for this contest, researchers noticed certain trends between the speeches. Only one of the six speeches (the second place

speech) used any type of historical evidence, which was the opposite of story and narrative use, which normally lends itself to historical evidence, and all the speeches except the third place speech used stories and narratives as supporting evidence. Another distinction noticed between the speeches was the difference in example and analogy use. While the first and sixth place speeches contained examples, no other speech from this contest had any type of example, but only the second, third, and fourth place speeches contained analogies. Usually the trend in persuasion is to see both used or none used in a speech (the fifth place speech did not use either), but these five speeches containing these coded concepts only used one or the other, which researchers found interesting.

The last aspect coded for this section was the presence of fallacies in the speeches. Researchers identified that the third and fifth place speeches contained elements of the slippery slope fallacy in route to creating the persuasive aspects of the speech. While this was an interesting finding to the researchers, the 1980 contest had distinct differences from the 1970 contest; the researchers concluded there was no noticeable distinction between supporting information and evidence usage and final speech placing.

1990

Supporting information and evidence usage at the 1990 had clear distinctions from the 1980 contest and the 1970 contest. The biggest difference was the number of cited sources and texts. In 1970 the range of sources was zero to six, with an average source use per speech of (4.33). This is much smaller compared to source citation in the 1980 contest where the range of cited sources was from four to ten, and the average source citation count per speech was (8.17), or nearly double the number from 1970. This

number again increased in 1990, where the range of sources cited was eight to sixteen, and the average source citation count per speech was (12.67), almost triple the average source citation per speech of the 1970 contest, and more then the average source citation of the 1970 and 1980 contests combined.

When coding the rest of the subcategories for this contest, researchers noticed certain trends between the speeches. Only one of the six speeches (the third place speech) used any type of historical evidence, which was the opposite of story and narrative use, which normally lends itself to historical evidence, and all the speeches used stories and narratives as supporting evidence. Another distinction noticed between the speeches was the difference in example and analogy use. While the second and fourth place speeches did not contain examples, all other speeches from this contest did, but only the fifth place speech contained analogies. Usually the trend in persuasion is to see both used or none used in a speech (the fifth place speech used both, while the second and fourth place speeches did not use examples or analogies for supporting evidence and information), but the first, third, and sixth places speeches contained only one or the other, which researchers found interesting.

The last aspect coded for this section was the presence of fallacies in the speeches. Researchers identified that the fourth and fifth place speeches contained elements of the slippery slope fallacy in route to creating the persuasive aspects of the speech. While this was an interesting finding to the researchers, the 1990 contest had distinct differences from the previous contests; the researchers concluded there was no noticeable distinction between supporting information and evidence usage and final speech placing.

2000

Use of supporting information and evidence continued to shift in the 2000 as researchers once again noticed distinct differences in the use of supporting evidence and information in comparison to the previously coded contests. The biggest difference, once again, was the number of cited sources and texts. In 1970 the average source use per speech was (4.33), in the 1980 the average source citation count per speech was (8.17), in 1990, the average source citation count per speech was (12.67). This number became even higher in the 2000 contest, where the range of sources increase to thirteen to eighteen, and the average source citation count per speech rose to (15.33).

When coding the rest of the subcategories for this contest, researchers noticed certain trends between the speeches. None of the speeches in the 2000 contest used historical evidence or analogies as a means of support for the topic of the speech. This is the first contest coded that had no speeches use either of those categories. This is also the first contest where all of the speeches used numbers, facts, and stories and narratives to support the persuasive measures of the speeches.

The last aspect coded for this section was the presence of fallacies in the speeches. Researchers identified that the sixth place speech contained elements of the slippery slope fallacy in route to creating the persuasive aspects of the speech. The researchers concluded there was no noticeable distinction between supporting information and evidence usage and final speech placing, but the presence of fallacies in the sixth place speech could have played a role in the speech taking last in the final round.

2010

The final contest coded for supporting information and evidence was the 2010 contest. Researchers again noticed distinct difference in the use of supporting evidence and information in comparison to the previously coded contests. In 1970 the average source use per speech was (4.33), in the 1980 the average source citation count per speech was (8.17), in 1990, the average source citation count per speech was (12.67) and in 2000 the average source citation count per speech rose to (15.33). While the 2010 contest is missing one speech from coding, the researchers concluded that the 2010 contest saw a drop in cited sources and texts, as the range was ten to eighteen cited sources and texts, and the average number of cited sources and texts was (13.6).

The biggest difference between the 2010 contest and the previously coded contest was the categories not present in the speeches. None of the speeches from this contest contained historical evidence, analogies, or fallacies of reasoning within the speech. All of the speeches also contained numbers and facts as supporting information and evidence for the speech. The only noticeable differences between the speeches came in the stories and narratives category and the examples category. The first place speech was the only speech not to contain stories or narratives within the text, and the first and second place speeches were the only speeches not to contain examples. As a result, the researchers concluded there was no noticeable distinction between supporting information and evidence usage and final speech placing.

Table 5

Source and Supporting Evidence Shifts Present in the Sample

Decade	Cited Sources/Texts	Numbers	Facts	Historical Evidence	Stories/Narratives	Examples	Analogies	Fallacies
1970	52 (4.333)	22 (1.833)	19 (1.583)	15 (1.250)	26 (2.167)	7 (0.583)	3 (0.250)	7 (0.583)
1980	49 (8.167)	22 (3.667)	13 (2.167)	1 (0.167)	12 (2.000)	2 (0.333)	3 (0.500)	2 (0.333)
1990	76 (12.667)	28 (4.667)	9 (1.500)	1 (0.167)	16 (2.667)	4 (0.667)	1 (0,167)	2 (0.333)
2000	92 (15.333)	32 (5.333)	13 (2.167)	0 (0.000)	11 (1.833)	7 (1.167)	0 (0.000)	1 (0.167)
2010	68 (13.600)	36 (7.200)	15 (3.000)	0 (0.000)	8 (1.600)	3 (0.600)	0 (0.000)	0 (0.000)
Total Number	337 (9.629)	140 (4.000)	69 (1.971)	17 (0.486)	73 (2.086)	23 (0.657)	7 (0.200)	12 (0.343)

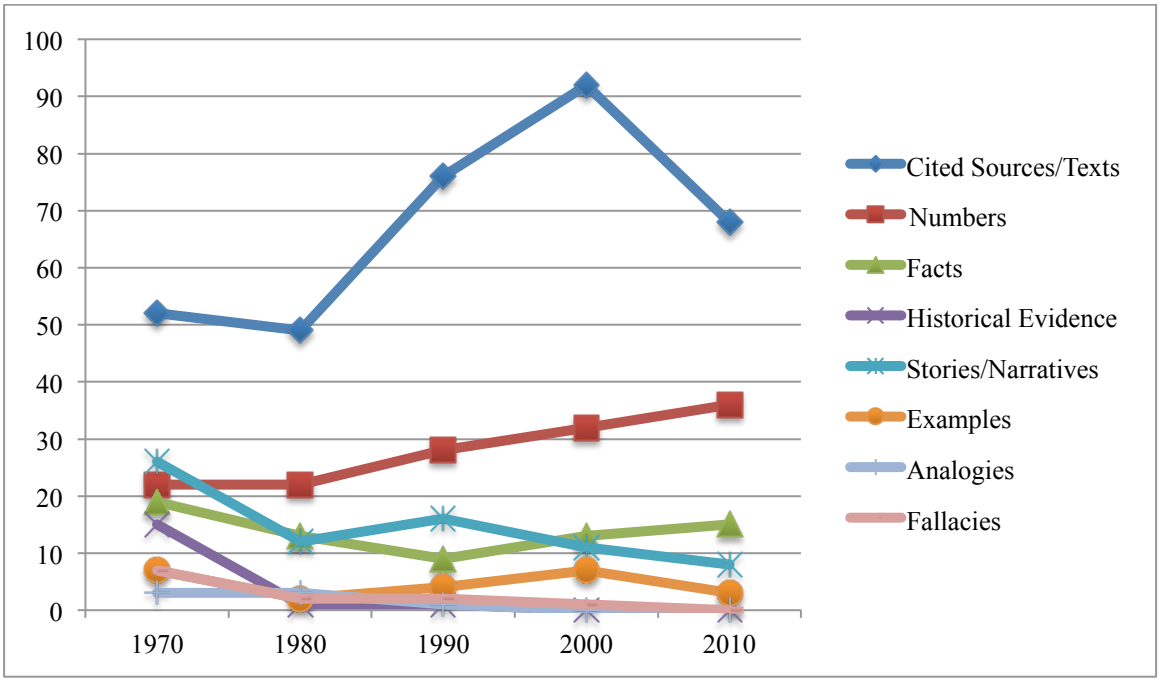

Figure 6. Source and Supporting Evidence Shifts Present in the Sample.

Discussion

After compiling the results from the five decades coded for this thesis, some clear themes emerged from the data. The distinctions of each decade coded are noted above in the tables for each theme area, and in the descriptions of findings for each contest. The goal of this section is to answer the research question of this thesis: have the speeches of the IOA contest changed over the last fifty years? The discussion section will be broken into three areas. These three areas are the key distinctions between the decades, and those are the persuasive structure changes, the differences in persona creation and use, and the changes in source and supporting information usage. These are the three areas coded that showed noticeable changes during the last 50 years. The numbers in the parenthesis in the tables above and in the appendix represent the average number of each coded aspect present in each speech from each contest. This is to help remove any possible visual skew to the data since the 1970 contest contained twelve coded speeches, and the 2010 contest contained only five coded speeches, while the 1980, 1990, and 2000 contests all had six speeches available for coding.

Structure Shifts

As noted above, the first key area of noticeable shifts was the shift in persuasive structure. As chapter one states, the focus of this thesis was to investigate if the speeches in the IOA contests have changed over the last fifty years, and in the speeches coded the researcher can say they have in structure use. The table below helps to illustrate the changes from decade-to-decade and the overall usage differences between the structures present.

The 1980 contest is the only contest where the average use of the problem-cause-solution structure is below the average for the entire sample set. In contrast, the 1980 contest is the only contest above the average for the sample set when looking at prevalence of the use of the Monroe's motivated sequence structure. The Jeremiad structure, the last structure present, was most present in the 1970 contest, which is also the only contest where the average is higher than the average for the entire data set. No other speech structure was identified in the sample set, and the 1970 contest was the only contest where participants used multiple persuasive structures to construct their speeches. While no clear pattern is noticeable to discern the reason for the shifts in structure use, it should be noted that the problem-cause-solution and Monroe's motivated sequence structures occurred at a much high rate compared to the jeremiad structure, especially in the 1990, 2000 and 2010 contests, which would support the idea that structure use and preferred pattern types have changed in the last fifty years.

Persona Shifts

The second area of changes in the contests coded was the changes in persona use and creation. Continuing the investigation to see if the aspects of speeches have changed over the last fifty years, the researcher noticed distinct differences in the personas used in the speeches coded for this thesis. Comparing the results from each decade to the averages for each coded theme for the entire data set, there were noticeable differences in the contests.

The first theme coded for this section was the inclusive persona. The 2000 and 2010 contests were the only contests with higher values compared to the average for the

entire set in regards to the inclusive persona. This was the same result for the practiced persona, as the 2010 contest was not only the only contest to be higher then the average for the sample set, but also the only decade to contain the practiced persona in the speeches for that decade.

The differences in personas shifted once the authentic persona, second persona, and third personas were coded for the decades. For the authentic persona, every contest besides the 1990 contest had a higher result compared to the average for the entire sample. For the second persona theme, the 1980, 1990, and 2000 contests had higher values compared to the average, and the 1980 and 1990 contests had higher values for the third persona.

A slight shift occurred for the last two themes, the other and combination categories. Compared to the average for the entire set, the 1990 and 2000 had values above the set average for the other category. For the last category, combination, the only contest not above the average for the entire set was the 1970 contest. Since the categories across the decades show distinct shifts from category to category, there is not distinct pattern discernable from the speeches. While there is no noticeable pattern to the shifts, the changes in the categories from decade to decade show that the persona aspect of speeches has changed in the last fifty years at the IOA contest.

Source/Supporting Information Shifts

The last area of noticeable changes in the speeches was the use of sources and supporting information in the speeches. This theme showed the biggest differences between contests. The largest changes in the coded speeches occurred once the last three

contests were coded. In terms of cited sources and texts the 1990, 2000, and 2010 contests were the contests with higher averages compared to the sample set average. This was the same trend noticed when coding for the use of numbers in the speeches. A shift in supporting evidence was also noticed when looking at the use of facts, where the 1980, 2000, and 2010 contests were the contests with higher average values. The higher value trend for the last three contests changed in the analogies and fallacies categories, where the 1970, 1980, and 1990 contests were the only contests containing the use of analogies in speeches, and the only contests that contained higher average values for presence of fallacies compared to the average of the data set.

Looking at the data, the 1990 contest serves as a turning point for the use of sources and texts as supporting evidence. This key change shows a clear shift in persuasive tendencies in the IOA contest, supporting the investigation of the research question from chapter one to discover if any noticeable changes have occurred in the IOA contest speeches in the last fifty years. While a larger sample would be needed to draw more specific claims, the trends noticed in this sample supports the need for further research.

Summary

All of the areas coded for this thesis showed differences between all of the contests, but the three areas in the discussion section showed the largest and most significant differences. Persuasion and persuasive theory has changed a lot over the last fifty years, but the rules for the contest, for the most part, have stayed the same. As aspects of society evolve, education evolves to keep pace and have the impact and

applicable skills students need to be successful after college. If persuasion has changed this much in the last fifty years, as evident in the coded speeches from the last fifty years of the oldest contest in the forensics community, the forensics community needs to reevaluate if the contest is still meeting the goals set forth during the creation of the contest.

CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

The motivating question for this thesis stems from forensics itself; if we consider these speeches to be the best of the best in the forensics community, does a shift in these speeches represent a shift in persuasion techniques that has occurred in the IOA contest speeches, or for the entire forensics community compared to what we have historically taught and seen as effective persuasion? This led to the research question; how have the speeches in the Interstate Oratorical Association contest changed over the last fifty years? The thesis was completed using a content analysis of the thirty-five speeches available from the 1970, 1980, 1990, 2000, and 2010 Interstate Oratorical Association competition final rounds. The speeches were individually coded and then compared to the other speeches from the same contest year, and then to all of the speeches within the research sample. Intercoder reliability and all three validity scores revealed values above eighty-one percent as noted in chapter four.

As the results section in chapter four indicates, the researcher noticed noticeable shifts in persuasive methods between the contests. The three key distinctions between the decades were the persuasive structure changes, the differences in persona creation and use, and the changes in source and supporting information usage. Due to these shifts, the following areas of implications for persuasion, persuasion research, forensics, and education developed. Persuasion concerns and shifts within forensics, persuasion shifts and concerns in education, and research concerning shifts and concerns in persuasion.

Implications as a Result of the Study

This thesis brings forth three areas of consideration as a result of the study. The three areas to consider after coding the IOA speeches are the manner in which forensics is justified, the use of forensics to draw overall claims about persuasion, and the shifts of persuasion within forensics. This section finishes by addressing the possible area of improvement for this study.

Justification of Forensics

The discussion of how to justify a forensic program to administration is not a new concept. As Michael Boylan explains, "It is obvious to everyone that persuasion is powerful. In Ancient Greece people spent large sums of money to posses this rare commodity; with it, they felt they could become successful" (Boylan, 1988, p. 1). After this study however, the question can be asked, do the results show a shift from a comprehensive manner of teaching persuasion, to teaching structures that win? Meaning, are we now seeing, as Boylan states, "Other, less, mercenary philosophers, such as Plato and Aristotle, extend the study of argument, developing it from an art to a science" (Boylan, 1988, p.1) being reflected in the speeches and coaching choices in forensics today. Since the basic goal of forensics in the time these societies and teams were created, in the time of their roots in Ancient Rome and Greece, was to expose students and citizens to a variety of opinions, speech types, structures, and concepts, if the shift becomes teaching and focusing on what wins, the justification of a "comprehensive" program is lost because the program is no longer comprehensive. As the data may indicate for those in the forensics community, both competitors and coaches, if our focus

in persuasion has become a focus on source driven speeches and truncated structure use rather than individual arguments and authentic audience connection by speakers, justifying our activity to administration, alumni, and potential students may become increasingly more difficult.

Persuasion Shifts in Education

As those in charge of forensic programs, either at the high school level or the college level, are educators, discussion on the disconnect that seems prevalent between how we teach and explain persuasion in the classroom and what persuasion has become in forensics is a natural next step. Effective public speaking, and effective persuasive speaking to be more specific, is a skill that needs to not only be explained, but also experienced in practice over and over to develop a firm understanding of concepts and application of those concepts. The classroom is a natural place to hone these skills and to disburse this information, but how are we approaching it in our modern classroom. Many institutions, if not all, have a basic public speaking course that undergraduates at their university can take to be exposed to the basic theories, concepts, and structures used in public speaking. While these courses serve as an introduction to concepts, allowing students to see and demonstrate their understanding of material with quizzes, exams, and in many cases speeches, the standard introductory level course does not go much further than this point. Sadly, this is where a large percentage of the student population at our universities ends their education with public speaking. One class, with maybe a few speeches, and we send them on their way, and hope they remember the things we "taught" them in class.

With many employers today saying that the number one skill they wish more college graduates had a firm grasp on being public speaking, why is there so little attention focused on persuasion, or even more generally, public speaking. The answer may be that our academic climate now puts stress on universities and educators to create more well-rounded graduates. Another may be that more advanced level courses that delve more into specific theories or types of communication, such as debate and persuasion, exist as upper-level courses at universities, but admittance into these courses is limit to specific majors that need to meet certain requirements to not only enroll in the class but also to graduate.

Picture this scenario. A student comes into a forensic team practice saying they would like to join the team. The only experience they have is the one semester worth of exposure they got in their intro class where they gave anywhere from one to five speeches, and had some papers, quizzes, and exams on material. The competitive mindset of forensics would say this student would not have a chance to be successful in competition, while the educational aspect of the activity would hint that the student has the foundation to build a successful speaker. Now, is that fair to the student, the team, the coach, or the professors the student has had for public speaking? The answer quite simply, is no.

Our culture has shifted from a focus of basic understanding of skills such as speaking and writing in a professional manner to a more applied approach. The idea of "if you can do the work you are hired" has started to bleed over into our classrooms, and students are losing sight of the value of these skills. In every job interview or any business interaction an individual needs to persuade the person they are talking to to hire

them, choose their product or idea over someone else's, or to give them a promotion. Educators try to combat this in the classroom with horror stories of well-qualified individuals not getting jobs due to an inability to articulate their qualifications, but students still do not fully grasp the importance of public speaking

Persuasion Shifts in Forensics

The difference in how students present speeches in competition can vary drastically from our culture norms surrounding speaking in a public setting. In forensics competition the speeches are almost always memorized, and delivered week after week to mostly the same audience and judges. In general public speaking, speakers use notes or visual aides to add to their persuasive ability and to connect with the audience. While some of these ideas transfer into forensics as well, it becomes a bit unclear of how to draw claims for persuasion as a whole when the field of forensics seem to be in a bubble, creating a "simulated public speaking situation" for students to compete within. If we continue down this path, as the data seems to be indicating, forensics, as it was developed and implemented in the past, will only continue to become more and more of a shadow of what it once was, and drift further away from what it can, and should be for our students.

Research Choice made for this Thesis

The one research decision that may have created a limitation in the data and the findings of this thesis pertains to the sample selected for investigation. This area is the area the primary researcher identified as the area of question about the study. In any

future research in this area, the selected sample is the area that could pose the biggest threat to research quality.

Selected Sample

The sample selected for analysis for this thesis was the final round speeches from the first contest of the last five decades. While this sample allowed for investigation across a long timeline, it possibly limited the differentiation and shifts that could have occurred in contests in the nine years between the ones coded for the thesis. This selection process also did not allow for semi-final speeches, or non-advancing speeches to be analyzed to document trends. While these speeches did not make the final round of the contest, they were still the best speeches from each state, and represent the top persuasive speeches in the country for that given year. As stated in the results section, the coded contests speeches did allow for themes and trends in regards to shifts in persuasion to be noticed, but did not allow researchers to pinpoint when exactly those shifts occurred. The choice to select to view just the texts of the speeches also limited the possible implications that could be drawn since delivery could not be considered in the analysis.

Future Research

Since this thesis only focused on a sample of five contests from the IOA contest, there are a few areas of future research opportunities that the research would like to propose for future research and investigation. The first of these would be a more comprehensive analysis of IOA contest speeches. Since a collection of all the know copies of "Winning Orations", the publication that contains all of the speeches that

competed at the IOA contest for each year exists, it would be possible to examine either the final round speeches from all contests, or all the speeches within contests and draw comparisons to other contests to gain a more complete view of how persuasion has evolved in the contest over the years.

The second proposed area for future research would be a comparison study of the speeches from the IOA contest and professional speeches given outside of the realm of forensics. If one were to compare the speeches from the contest to speeches given by motivational speakers, politicians, and other professionals, comparisons of structures and persuasive methods could be made to see how practical the methods used in forensics competition translate over into the professional fields. This, hopefully, could help to answer some of the questions that are asked about the practical application of skills learned in forensics once a student graduates and enters the career they prepared for in college.

The last area of possible future research is a comparison of structures and methods used in competition to the methods and structures taught and used in public speaking courses. Since forensics was designed to be an extension of the classroom, comparing speeches between the two areas would allow researchers to explore the similarities and differences between the two in order to determine if forensics is still connected to the educational-based roots it was founded upon. Since the focus in forensics is currently on not only helping students learn but also to be competitively successful, many have questioned if the competitive focus has become the primary focus, and education has now become a secondary concern.

Conclusion

After examining the results of the research regarding the speeches from the final rounds of the IOA contest contained in this thesis, the answer to the research question of: have the speeches in the Interstate Oratorical Association contest changed over the last fifty years, has become clear. The speeches coded from these contests showed noticeable shifts in structure use, persona use and creation, and use and citations of stories and sources within a given speech. These shifts also reflected the ideas and concerns identified in the literature contain in the literature review for the thesis.

Looking at the historical changes present in this fifty-year data range, a more in-depth examination of all the contests during the fifty-year range, or looking at even earlier contests can help articulate the structural changes and the historical shifts that have occurred in the contest, and possibly in the activity as a whole. Since this thesis echoes the work and ideas presented by Sellnow & Ziegelmueller (1988), if someone would want to use this thesis to continue this line of work, looking into the historical connection would be key to understanding how forensics has changed and how this reflects our field and discipline. As forensics and education continue to grow and change with the times to address the needs and skill-sets needed for students to be successful, an investigation into the shifts in trends in one can help to shed light on the other. As this thesis indicated, there are noticeable shifts in competitive forensics, and those shifts may be having an impact on the way persuasion is presented and learned within the classroom. The educational link and focus in forensics may become unclear and blurred at times, but the ultimate focus of the activity, as represented by the speeches from the IOA contest and the literature examining the growth and changes within the community, will always

be on helping student learn and progress as speakers and develop the skills they need to be successful speakers in the ever-changing and ever-growing world.

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APPENDIX A: CODESHEET

Code Sheet for Coder #_____

Speech Title:_____

Year:_____

Speech Author: _____

Speech Placing:_____

Word Count : _____

Coach (es) Name (s) _____

Noteworthy Quotations (List Pages and Line #'s):

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

In all boxes containing a "/" on the left of the "/" indicate the presence or absence of the coded theme. To the right of the "/" assign the proper substance code for the theme, as listed in the codebook.

	Topic Area	Direct Reference	# of Direct References	Indirect Reference	# of Indirect References
Topic	/	/	/	/	/

	Problem-Cause-Solution	Monroe's Motivated Sequence	Jeremiad	Other (Please Indicate)	Combination (Please Indicate)
Speech Structure	/	/	/	/	/

	Particular	# of Particular References	General	# of General References
Implied Audience				

	Inclusive	Practice	Authentic	Second Persona	Third Persona	Other (please Indicate)	Combination (please indicate)
Persona	/	/	/	/	/	/	/

	Cited Sources/Texts	Numbers	Facts	Historical Evidence/History	Stories/Narratives	Examples	Analogies	Fallacies
Supporting Information/Evidence	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/

APPENDIX B: CODEBOOK

Interstate Oratory Persuasive Speech Structures Study

Keith Bistodeau, NDSU, Primary Investigator

This codebook is designed to help you in the process of coding Interstate Oratory Persuasive Speeches. Each variable is defined based on how it is being addressed in this study. Please only use the definitions in this codebook when coding the speeches. You may be familiar with other definitions or descriptions of the words, but those definitions are not applicable to this study. In order to code each speech, please follow the instructions provided below. Even if you are familiar with coding materials, please read and use the following instructions as the primary methods for coding the speeches.

Instructions:

This is a study exploring how the persuasive structures have changed in Interstate Oratory Final Round Speeches between 1970 and 2010 by looking at the final round speeches from the first contest of each decade. By exploring differences between the speeches, this study hopes to understand how the authors of these speeches have changed their approach to persuasive speaking and how persuasion has changed within forensic competition over the years in the study. Your job as a coder for this study is to read the speeches and identify the presence or absence of various concepts and ideas.

The rest of this codebook will provide you with the important definitions to use when coding the speeches. The definitions are part of the key variables in this study, and you should take the necessary time to be familiar with the terminology before beginning to code the speeches. After each definition is provided, instructions will be provided as to how to locate those themes in the speeches. Please follow the provided directions.

Coder
Each coder will be assigned an individual number. Please indicate that number on the line.

Year
Identify the year the speech occurred in the final round. This information can be found in the table of contents on the *Winning Orations* publication.

Title
Identify the complete title of the speech. This information can be found on the title page of the speech.

Speech Place #
Identify the final round placing of the speech. This information can be found in the table of contents on the *Winning Orations* publication.

Word Count
Identify the total number of words contained in the speech. This will be done by a manual word count of the speech script.

Speech Author
Identify the author of the speech. This information can be found on the title page of the speech.

Coach (es)
Identify the coach (es) of the speech. This information can be found on the title page of the speech.

Noteworthy Quotes
Identify any meaningful quote(s) from the speech that help to build a database of specific examples of the study's overall themes.

General Instructions:

Before beginning the next portion of coding, take time to familiarize yourself with each speech you are coding. Please make sure you read the directions for each different line of coding as seen on the coding sheet. Use the terminology on the coding sheet as a guide to locate all the terms and instances in the speech where the following themes occur.

Themes

Coders will indicate the presence or absence of the following themes. A brief description of all themes will be given for clarity.

Indicate on the form which terms are used in the speech.
Topic:
The coding method for this particular aspect of the speeches is aimed at addressing how the speaker framed their topic throughout their speech. Meaning, how many times is the topic directly, or indirectly referenced in the speech. While the topic may be implied by the title of the speech or the sources used, direct statements or indirect references to the topic within the speech can be used as a persuasive mechanism.

Structure:
Genre:
A category of artistic composition, as in music or literature, characterized by similarities in form, style, or subject matter. Since these are persuasive speeches the coder will list whether or not they feel the speech falls into the persuasive structures below.

Problem-Cause-Solution:
The Problem-Cause-Solution (PCS) speech is a speech with three main points – the first identifying a problem, the second analyzing the causes of the problem, and the third presenting a solution to the problem.
Monroe's Motivated Sequence:
Monroe's Motivated Sequence (MMS) is an organizational pattern used to develop a sense of *want* or *need* in the audience, satisfy that want or need, and to help the audience get enthused about the advantages of that solution.

Jeremiad:
This is a speech with three main points – the first identifying a problem, the second analyzing the current condition of the problem, and the third presenting a solution to the problem.

Other:
While the three types listed above are the most prevalent types of persuasive structures used in forensic competitions there are other structures students could use. If a speech is identified as using a structure besides the three listed above the coder will select the "other" option and identify the structure used.

Combination:
This option is reserved for selection only if it is clear that multiple persuasive strategies are being used by the speaker, meaning at least two persuasive structures must be noticeably present for the coder to select this option. If selected, the coder must identify all structures used in the speech

Implied Audience:
An implied audience is an imaginary audience determined by an auditor or reader as the text's constructed audience. The implied audience is not the actual audience, but the one that can be inferred by reading or analyzing the text.

Particular:
The coder will identify if the message of the speech is geared towards a specific aspect of our society, and if confirmed, will identify who they believe that specific audience to be.

General:
Unlike a particular audience, a general audience approach is meant to address all possible listeners/readers of a speech. If the coder feels that the speaker was gearing towards a general audience, they will identify the implied audience as general.

Persona:
Authoritative:

An authoritative persona in a speech is one that is substantiated and supported by documentary evidence and appears to exercise the authority the speaker creates onto the audience.

Inclusive:
An inclusive persona in a speech is one that is accommodating and appears and sounds open to ideas and criticism from the audience (s) being addressed. This persona can be identified by questions or open phrases within a text.
Authentic:
An authentic persona is one that sounds and reads as if the speaker/writer was in normal conversation. This style does not heavily rely on sources or figures, but is more based in stories and real-life occurrences.

Second Persona:
The Second Persona presents the theoretical concept of the implied audience using the idea of two personae. The first persona is the implied rhetorician (the idea of the speaker formed by the audience) and the second persona is the implied audience (the idea of the audience formed by and utilized for persuasion in the speech situation). The coder for this situation would need to identify the first and second persona being used. An example of this would be the speaker referencing a specific audience to be addressed, such as college students, or a United States Citizen. This would be considered a second persona due to the fact that while that particular audience is referenced, the speaker cannot assume that individuals from the referenced audience will be present.

Third Persona:
The third persona (Audience) is the audience which is not present, or that is excluded, in rhetorical communication. This conception of the Third Persona relates to the First Persona, the "I" in discourse (a speaker and their intent), and the second persona, the "you" in discourse, both of whom participate within a constrained social sphere. Third Persona is "the 'it' that is not present, that is objectified in a way that 'you' and 'I' are not." Third Persona, as a theory, seeks to define and critique the rules of rhetoric, to further consider how we talk about what we talk and who is affected by that discourse. A third persona is not always present in a speech, but exists when an excluded audience is referenced (i.e., ‘conspicuous absence’, where a speaker hints at excluded audience, or de facto absence, where a speaker ignores audience).

<u>Supporting Information/Evidence:</u>
Cited Sources/Texts:
Supporting information is information that comes from a published text or source and is cited in the speech containing the name of the text and the author in order to establish legitimacy of the source.

Numbers:
This aspect includes and specific numbers or statistics cited in the speech.

Facts:

Facts are any common knowledge or irrefutable statements that are known by the general public.

Historical Evidence/History:
Are any accounts of connected events presented to a reader or listener in a sequence of written or spoken words that are direct or indirect references to past historical events (i.e. referencing WWI or WWII, the Freedom March, War of 1812, etc.).

Stories/Narrative:
This type of supporting information is most similar to the general concept of stories that one would hear passed down from generation or generation. Items that would start something like, "My Grandfather once told me…" or something similar to that general nature.

Examples:
An example is something that is representative of a group or idea. One can think of an example as a model of an idea being presented. (i.e. Discussing the current economic situation in the United States to illustrate economic hardship).

Analogies:
A form of logical inference or an instance of it, based on the assumption that if two things are known to be alike in some respects, then they must be alike in other respects. (i.e. He is like a rock. This means he is steadfast and strong).

Fallacies:
A fallacy is incorrect argument or statement of logic and rhetoric resulting in a lack of validity, or more generally, a lack of soundness. (i.e. *ad hominem*: Latin for "to the man." An arguer who uses ad hominems attacks the person instead of the argument. *Appeals to ignorance*: appealing to ignorance or lack of knowledge on a subject as evidence for something. *Argument from omniscience*: An arguer would need omniscience to know about everyone's beliefs or disbeliefs or about their knowledge. Beware of words like "all," "everyone," "everything," "absolute." *Appeal to faith*: If the arguer relies on faith as the bases of his argument, then you can gain little from further discussion. Faith, by definition, relies on a belief that does not rest on logic or evidence. Faith depends on irrational thought and produces intransigence. *Appeal to tradition* (similar to the bandwagon fallacy): Just because people practice a tradition, says nothing about its viability.)

Present/Absent
Coders will determine whether or not the theme was present in the speech or absent. This will be marked with a 1 for yes and a 2 for no.

Substance of Themes
Coders will evaluate if the themes mentioned play a smaller or large role in the speech by coding them on a 1 to 6 scale. 1 stands for 0-1 instances, 2 stands for 2-3 instances, 3

stands for 4-5 instances, 4 stands for 6-7 instances, and 6 stands for 8+ instances.

In the following pages of the coding book is a sample speech from the Interstate Oratory Contest, along with a coding form completed based on that speech. Please refer to that example for clarification on questions, and use this as sample speech for you to code using this coding book.

Thank you for your help with this project. If you have any questions for me at any point, please contact me:

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APPENDIX C: TABLES REPRESENTING CODED DATA FROM CONTESTS

Table C1

Topic Areas and Reference in the 1970 IOA Contest

Placing	Topic	Topic Area	Direct References	# of Direct References	Indirect Reference	# of Indirect References
1st Men's	Workplace Progress	Workplace	Yes	1 (1)	Yes	2 (2)
2nd Men's	Black Power	Prejudice	Yes	4 (3)	Yes	1 (1)
3rd Men's	U.S. Government Support	Government	Yes	2 (2)	Yes	1 (1)
4th Men's	Black Power	Prejudice	Yes	3 (2)	Yes	1 (1)
5th Men's	Mental Retardation	Medical	Yes	5 (4)	No	0 (1)
6th Men's	Space Program	Government	Yes	4 (3)	Yes	1 (1)
1st Women's	Gerontion	Medical	Yes	2 (2)	Yes	8 (6)
2nd Women's	Human Brain	Medical	Yes	8 (6)	Yes	8 (6)
3rd Women's	Prejudice	Prejudice	Yes	4 (3)	Yes	8 (6)
4th Women's	Mental Retardation	Medical	Yes	1 (1)	Yes	5 (3)
5th Women's	Accident Responsiveness	Medical	Yes	6 (4)	Yes	8 (6)
6th Women's	Minority Education	Education	Yes	4 (3)	Yes	5 (4)

Table C2

Topic Areas and Reference in the 1980 IOA Contest

Placing	Topic	Topic Area	Direct References	# of Direct References	Indirect References	# of Indirect References
1st Place	Hospices	Medical	Yes	5 (4)	Yes	1 (1)
2nd Placing	Fetal Alcohol Syndrome	Medical	Yes	6 (5)	No	None
3rd Place	Sexual Harrassment	Workplace	Yes	6 (5)	Yes	1 (1)
4th Place	High Blood Pressure	Medical	Yes	7 (6)	Yes	2 (2)
5th Place	Stolen Military Weapons	Government	Yes	7 (5)	Yes	3 (2)
6th Place	Compulsive Suing	Government	Yes	7 (5)	Yes	1 (1)

Table C3

Topic Areas and Reference in the 1990 IOA Contest

Placing	Topic	Topic Area	Direct Reference	# of Direct References	Indirect Reference	# of Indirect References
1st Place	Time Theft	Workplace	Yes	6 (4)	Yes	1 (1)
2nd Place	Recycling Cans	Economic	Yes	7 (6)	Yes	2 (2)
3rd Place	Financial Planners	Economic	Yes	6 (5)	Yes	2 (2)
4th Place	Toxic Trafficking	Government	Yes	7 (5)	Yes	1 (1)
5th Place	Drivers Education	Government	Yes	8 (6)	No	None
6th Place	Nursing Shortage	Medical	Yes	7 (5)	Yes	1 (1)

Table C4

Topic Areas and Reference in the 2000 IOA Contest

Placing	Topic	Topic Area	Direct Reference	# of Direct References	Indirect Reference	# of Indirect References
1st Place	Racial Profiling	Workplace	Yes	7 (5)	Yes	1 (1)
2nd Place	Unsanitary Hotels	Travel	Yes	8 (6)	Yes	1 (1)
3rd Place	Prosecutorial Abuse	Legal	Yes	7 (5)	Yes	1 (1)
4th Place	Idle Rape Kits	Legal	Yes	6 (5)	No	None
5th Place	Distortion of History	Education	Yes	8 (6)	Yes	2 (2)
6th Place	Racial Profiling	Legal	Yes	4 (3)	Yes	4 (3)

Table C5

Topic Areas and Reference in the 2010 IOA Contest

Placing	Topic	Topic Area	Direct Reference	# of Direct References	Indirect Reference	# of Indirect References
1st Place	U.S. Power Grid	Government	Yes	7 (5)	No	None
2nd Place	U.S. Public Schools	Education	Yes	6 (5)	No	None
3rd Place	U.S. Hospital Prices	Medical	Yes	7 (5)	No	None
4th Place	U.S. World Hunger Aide	Government	Yes	8 (6)	Yes	2 (2)
5th Place	X	X	X	X	X	X
6th Place	U.S. Cyber Security	Government	Yes	10 (6)	No	None

Table C6

Structures Used in the 1970 IOA Contest

Placing	Problem-Cause-Solution	Monroe's Motivated Sequence	Jeremiad	Other (Indicated)	Combination (All Used Indicated)
1st Men's	Yes	No	Yes	No	PCS, Jeremiad
2nd Men's	No	No	Yes	No	No
3rd Men's	No	No	Yes	No	No
4th Men's	Yes	No	No	No	No
5th Men's	No	No	Yes	No	No
6th Men's	No	Yes	No	No	No
1st Women's	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	PCS, MMS, Jeremiad
2nd Women's	No	Yes	Yes	No	MMS, Jeremiad
3rd Women's	No	Yes	No	No	No
4th Women's	Yes	No	No	No	No
5th Women's	Yes	Yes	No	No	PCS, MMS
6th Women's	No	No	Yes	No	No

Table C7

Structures Used in the 1980 IOA Contest

Placing	Problem-Cause-Solution	Monroe's Motivated Sequence	Jeremiad	Others (Indicated)	Combination (Indicated)
1st Place	No	Yes	No	No	No
2nd Place	No	Yes	No	No	No
3rd Place	No	Yes	No	No	No
4th Place	No	Yes	No	No	No
5th Place	No	Yes	No	No	No
6th Place	No	No	Yes	No	No

Table C8

Structures Used in the 1990 IOA Contest

Placing	Problem-Cause-Solution	Monroe's Motivated Sequence	Jeremiad	Others (Indicated)	Combination (Indicated)
1st Place	Yes	No	No	No	No
2nd Place	No	Yes	No	No	No
3rd Place	Yes	No	No	No	No
4th Place	Yes	No	No	No	No
5th Place	No	Yes	No	No	No
6th Place	Yes	No	No	No	No

Table C9

Structures Used in the 2000 IOA Contest

Placing	Problem-Cause-Solution	Monroe's Motivated Sequence	Jeremiad	Others (Indicated)	Combination (Indicated)
1st Place	Yes	No	No	No	No
2nd Place	Yes	No	No	No	No
3rd Place	No	No	Yes	No	No
4th Place	No	Yes	No	No	No
5th Place	Yes	No	No	No	No
6th Place	No	Yes	No	No	No

Table C10

Structures Used in the 2010 IOA Contest

Placing	Problem-Cause-Solution	Monroe's Motivated Sequence	Jeremiad	Others (Indicated)	Combination (Indicated)
1st Place	Yes	No	No	No	No
2nd Place	No	Yes	No	No	No
3rd Place	Yes	No	No	No	No
4th Place	No	No	Yes	No	No
5th Place	X	X	X	X	X
6th Place	Yes	No	No	No	No

Table C11

Implied Audiences and Audience References in the 1970 IOA Contest

Placing	Particular (Listed)	# of Particular References	General (Listed)	# of General Reference
1st Men's	Government Officials, U.S. Employers	2 (2)	U.S. Citizens	2 (2)
2nd Men's	Black Citizens, White Citizens	2 (2)	U.S. Citizens	2 (2)
3rd Men's	Government Officials, Voters, Forensic Community	3 (2)	U.S. Citizens	1 (1)
4th Men's	Black Citizens, White Citizens	2 (2)	U.S. Citizens	2 (2)
5th Men's	None	0 (1)	U.S. Citizens	3 (2)
6th Men's	NASA Officials, Government Officials	2 (2)	U.S. Citizens	2 (2)
1st Women's	None	0 (1)	U.S Citizens	3 (2)
2nd Women's	Doctors/Nurses	1 (1)	U.S. Citizens	5 (4)
3rd Women's	Teacher/Educators	2 (2)	U.S. Citizens	5 (4)
4th Women's	None	0 (1)	U.S. Citizens	3 (2)
5th Women's	E.M.T. Personnel	2 (2)	U.S. Citizens	4 (3)
6th Women's	Teachers/Educators	2 (2)	U.S. Citizens	4 (3)

Table C12

Implied Audiences and Audience References in the 1980 IOA Contest

Placing	Particular (Listed)	# of Particular References	General (Listed)	# of General References
1st Place	Hospice Employees	1 (1)	U.S. Citizens	1 (1)
2nd Place	Medical Professionals, Parents/Expecting Parents	2 (2)	U.S. Citizens	1 (1)
3rd Place	Employers, Employees	2 (2)	U.S. Citizens, Voters	2 (2)
4th Place	Medical Professionals, Forensics Community	2 (2)	U.S. Citizens	1 (1)
5th Place	U.S. Military	1 (1)	U.S. Citizens, Voters	2 (2)
6th Place	Congressmen	1 (1)	U.S. Citizens	1 (1)

Table C13

Implied Audiences and Audience References in the 1990 IOA Contest

Placing	Particular (Listed)	# of Particular References	General (Listed)	# of General References
1st Place	Employers	1 (1)	U.S. Workers	2 (2)
2nd Place	Recycling Citizens, Government	2 (2)	U.S. Citizens, Voters	2 (2)
3rd Place	Financial Planners, Government Officials, Forensics Community	3 (2)	U.S. Citizens, Voters	2 (2)
4th Place	U.S. Military, Government Officials	2 (2)	U.S. Citizens, Voters	2 (2)
5th Place	Government Officials, Educators	2 (2)	U.S. Citizens	1 (1)
6th Place	Nurses/Doctors, Patients, Family Members, Government Officials	4 (3)	U.S. Citizens	1 (1)

Table C14

Implied Audiences and Audience References in the 2000 IOA Contest

Placing	Particular (Listed)	# of Particular References	General (Listed)	# of General References
1st Place	Employers, Employees, Government Officials	3 (2)	U.S. Citizens	1 (1)
2nd Place	Hotel Owners, Hotel Employees, Forensics Community	3 (2)	U.S. Citizens	1 (1)
3rd Place	Government Officials, Lawyers, Judges	3 (2)	U.S. Citizens	1 (1)
4th Place	Government Officials, Law Enforcement	2 (2)	U.S. Citizens	1 (1)
5th Place	Educators, Government Officials, Students, Parents	4 (3)	None	None
6th Place	Government Officials, Law Enforcement, Minority Citizens	3 (2)	U.S. Citizens	1 (1)

Table C15

Implied Audiences and Audience References in the 2010 IOA Contest

Placing	Particular (Listed)	# of Particular References	General (Listed)	# of General References
1st Place	Government Officials	1 (1)	U.S. Citizens	1 (1)
2nd Place	Parents, School Officials	2 (2)	U.S. Citizens	1 (1)
3rd Place	Hospital Employees, Government Officials	2 (2)	U.S. Citizens	1 (1)
4th Place	Government Officials, Aide Workers	2 (2)	U.S. Citizens	1 (1)
5th Place	X	X	X	X
6th Place	Government Officials, Voters	2 (2)	U.S. Citizens	1 (1)

Table C16

Personas Used in the 1970 IOA Contest

Placing	Inclusive	Practiced	Authentic	2nd Persona	3rd Persona	Other (Indicated)	Combination (Indicated)
1st Men's	No	No	No	2 (2)	1 (1)	No	2nd Persona, 3rd Persona
2nd Men's	1 (1)	No	1 (1)	1 (1)	1 (1)	No	Inclusive, Authentic, 2nd Persona, 3rd Persona
3rd Men's	No	No	No	3 (2)	No	No	No
4th Men's	2 (2)	No	1 (1)	1 (1)	No	No	Inclusive, Authentic, 2nd Persona
5th Men's	No	No	1 (1)	2 (2)	2 (2)	No	Authentic, 2nd Persona, 3rd Persona
6th Men's	No	No	No	2 (2)	2 (2)	No	2nd Persona, 3rd Persona
1st Women's	No	No	No	No	No	Authoritative 1 (1)	No
2nd Women's	No	No	3 (2)	1 (1)	No	No	Authentic, 2nd Persona
3rd Women's	No	No	No	2 (2)	No	Authoritative 1 (1)	2nd Persona, Authoritative
4th Women's	No	No	5 (4)	No	No	No	No
5th Women's	No	No	4 (3)	2 (2)	No	No	Authentic, 2nd Persona
6th Women's	No	No	No	3 (2)	No	No	No

Table C17

Personas Used in the 1980 IOA Contest

Placing	Inclusive	Practice	Authentic	Second Persona	Third Persona	Other (Indicated)	Combination (Indicated)
1st Place	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Authentic, 2nd Persona, 3rd Persona
2nd Place	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	2nd Persona, 3rd Persona
3rd Place	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Inclusive, Authentic, 2nd Persona, 3rd Persona
4th Place	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Authoritative	2nd Persona, 3rd Persona, Authoritative
5th Place	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Authentic, 2nd Persona, 3rd Persona
6th Place	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	2nd Persona, 3rd Persona

Table C18

Personas Used in the 1990 IOA Contest

Placing	Inclusive	Practice	Authentic	Second Persona	Third Persona	Other (Indicated)	Combination (Indicated)
1st Place	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	Inclusive, 2nd Persona, 3rd Persona
2nd Place	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	Authentic, 2nd Persona
3rd Place	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	Inclusive, 2nd Persona, 3rd Persona
4th Place	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	2nd Persona, 3rd Persona
5th Place	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Authoritative	2nd Persona, 3rd Persona, Authoritative
6th Place	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Authoritative	2nd Persona, 3rd Persona, Authoritative

Table C19

Personas Used in the 2000 IOA Contest

Placing	Inclusive	Practice	Authentic	Second Persona	Third Persona	Other (Indicated)	Combination (Indicated)
1st Place	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Authoritative	Inclusive, 2nd Persona, 3rd Persona, Authoritative
2nd Place	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Inclusive, Authentic, 2nd Persona, 3rd Persona
3rd Place	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	Authoritative	Authentic, 2nd Persona, Authoritative
4th Place	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	Inclusive, Authentic,2nd Persona
5th Place	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	Authoritative	Inclusive, 2nd Persona, Authoritative
6th Place	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Authoritative	Authentic, 2nd Persona, 3rd Persona, Authoritative

Table C20

Personas Used in the 2010 IOA Contest

Placing	Inclusive	Practice	Authentic	Second Persona	Third Persona	Other (Indicated)	Combination (Indicated)
1st Place	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Inclusive, Authentic, 2nd Persona, 3rd Persona
2nd Place	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	Inclusive, 2nd Persona, 3rd Persona
3rd Place	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	Inclusive, Practice
4th Place	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	Authoritative	Inclusive, Authentic, Authoritative
5th Place	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
6th Place	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Inclusive, Practice, Authentic, 2nd Persona, 3rd Persona

Table C21

Supporting Information and Evidence Used in the 1970 IOA Contest

Placing	Cited Sources/texts	Numbers	Facts	Historical Evidence	Stories/Narratives	Examples	Analogies	Fallacies (identified)
1st Men's	6 (5)	1 (1)	3 (2)	None	2 (2)	None	None	None
2nd Men's	6 (5)	None	2 (2)	2 (2)	None	1 (1)	1 (1)	None
3rd Men's	6 (5)	6 (5)	3 (2)	1 (1)	1 (1)	1 (1)	1 (1)	Reasoning
4th Men's	2 (2)	None	None	1 (1)	2 (2)	None	None	None
5th Men's	None	2 (2)	2 (2)	1 (1)	3 (2)	None	None	Reasoning
6th Men's	4 (3)	2 (2)	1 (1)	1 (1)	None	1 (1)	None	None
1st Women's	6 (4)	2 (2)	None	2 (2)	4 (3)	2 (2)	None	Slippery Slope
2nd Women's	6 (4)	2 (2)	None	1 (1)	4 (3)	None	1 (1)	Slippery Slope, Bandwagon
3rd Women's	6 (4)	1 (1)	None	None	2 (2)	2 (2)	None	Slippery Slope, Bandwagon
4th Women's	3 (2)	2 (2)	2 (2)	1 (1)	3 (2)	None	None	None
5th Women's	5 (3)	4 (3)	2 (2)	4 (3)	1 (1)	None	None	None
6th Women's	2 (2)	None	4 (3)	1 (1)	4 (3)	None	None	None

Table C22

Supporting Information and Evidence Used in the 1980 IOA Contest

Placing	Cited Sources/Texts	Numbers	Facts	Historical Evidence	Stories/Narratives	Examples	Analogies	Fallacies (Identified)
1st Place	9 (8)	3 (2)	3 (2)	None	2 (2)	1 (1)	None	None
2nd Place	4 (3)	3 (2)	4 (3)	1 (1)	1 (1)	None	1 (1)	None
3rd Place	7 (6)	2 (2)	1 (1)	None	None	None	1 (1)	Slippery Slope
4th Place	10 (8)	8 (8)	3 (2)	None	2 (2)	None	1 (1)	None
5th Place	10 (8)	3 (2)	1 (1)	None	2 (2)	None	None	Slippery Slope
6th Place	9 (8)	3 (2)	1 (1)	None	5 (4)	1 (1)	None	None

Table C23

Supporting Information and Evidence Used in the 1990 IOA Contest

Placing	Cited Sources/Texts	Numbers	Facts	Historical Evidence	Stories/Narratives	Examples	Analogies	Fallacies (Identified)
1st Place	14 (8)	4 (3)	1 (1)	None	4 (3)	1 (1)	None	None
2nd Place	15 (8)	3 (2)	1 (1)	None	2 (2)	None	None	None
3rd Place	11 (8)	5 (4)	1 (1)	1 (1)	3 (2)	1 (1)	None	None
4th Place	8 (6)	5 (4)	2 (2)	None	2 (2)	None	None	Slippery Slope
5th Place	12 (8)	6 (5)	2 (2)	None	2 (2)	1 (1)	1 (1)	Slippery Slope
6th Place	16 (8)	5 (3)	2 (2)	None	3 (2)	1 (1)	None	None

Table C24

Supporting Information and Evidence Used in the 2000 IOA Contest

Placing	Cited Sources/Texts	Numbers	Facts	Historical Evidence	Stories/Narratives	Examples	Analogies	Fallacies (Identified)
1st Place	14 (6)	5 (4)	2 (2)	None	2 (2)	None	None	None
2nd Place	18 (6)	7 (5)	3 (2)	None	2 (2)	2 (2)	None	None
3rd Place	13 (8)	4 (3)	2 (2)	None	1 (1)	None	None	None
4th Place	16 (8)	5 (4)	2 (2)	None	2 (2)	1 (1)	None	None
5th Place	16 (8)	6 (5)	2 (2)	None	2 (2)	2 (2)	None	None
6th Place	15 (6)	5 (4)	2 (2)	None	2 (2)	2 (2)	None	Slippery Slope (1)

Table C25

Supporting Information and Evidence Used in the 2010 IOA Contest

Placing	Cited Sources/Texts	Numbers	Facts	Historical Evidence	Stories/Narratives	Examples	Analogies	Fallacies (Identified)
1st Place	12 (8)	4 (3)	2 (2)	None	None	None	None	None
2nd Place	13 (8)	10 (8)	4 (3)	None	1 (1)	None	None	None
3rd Place	10 (8)	7 (5)	2 (2)	None	2 (2)	1 (1)	None	None
4th Place	15 (8)	7 (6)	3 (2)	None	3 (2)	1 (1)	None	None
5th Place	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
6th Place	18 (8)	8 (6)	4 (3)	None	2 (2)	1 (1)	None	None